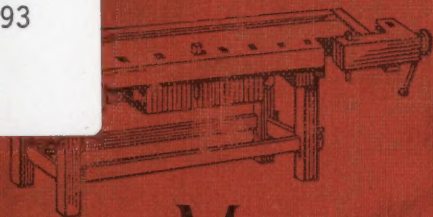


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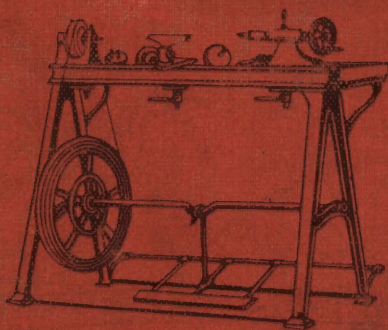
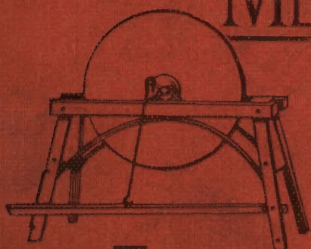
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CHAPTER I.

*METALS AND ALLOYS.*

**T**HE metals constitute about five-sixths of the known elementary bodies. They are distinguished by a peculiar lustre, by their opacity, and by their power of conducting heat and electricity. With few exceptions, metals possess considerable specific gravity, hardness and cohesion, and require a high degree of heat to liquefy them. One, mercury, is liquid at ordinary temperatures; and a very few, as sodium and potassium, are lighter than water, which they decompose with such energy as to produce combustion.

The properties which characterise metals, and by which distinctive qualities are shown, are tabulated on page 2.

The various figures are collected from a multitude of sources, the best attainable. The authorities often differ somewhat widely, but this can be accounted for from the fact that few metals are obtained pure. The peculiarities in the same metals obtained from different localities are often unnoticed, and account for the variable statements of the cohesion in the tables compiled by those who have investigated the properties of metals and published the results.

# THE PROPERTIES AND CHARACTERISTICS OF METALS.

NAME.	Symbol.	Tensile Strength. Lbs. per square in.	Atomic Weight.	Specific Gravity: Water = 1.	Melts—Deg. Fahr.	Specific Heat.	Linear Expansion from 32° to 112° Fahr.	Mag. or Diamag.	Relative Order.					Tenacity—Wire 1/8 in. Diam. sus- tains lbs.
									Malleability.	Ductility.	Con- ductivity.			
											Heat.	Electricity.		
Aluminum.....	Al.	1,060	27.49	2.67	1,562	.2143	315	D	7	10	66			
Antimony.....	Sb.		122	6.71	797	.0508	315	D	2		21	5		
Arsenic.....	As.		75	5.8		.0814		D	12		6	5		
Bismuth.....	Bi.		210.34	9.823	500	.0308	315	D	1		58	24		
Cadmium.....	Cd.		112.12	8.655	617	.0567		D	5	11				
Chromium.....	Cr.		52.5	6.81	3,992			M	5					
Cobalt.....	Co.		58.8	8.95	3,272	.1069		M	3	13	8		17	
Copper.....	Cu.	33,000	63.49	8.95	1,742	.0950	315	D	10	3	84	99	600	
Gold.....	Au.		196.66	19.34	2,282	.0324	315	D	11	1	98	78	200	
Iridium.....	Ir.		197.1	21.15	3,992	.0326	315	D	15					
Iron.....	Fe.	57,600	56.08	7.844	2,912	.1138	315	M	1	6	44	17	720	
Lead.....	Pb.	1,900	206.91	11.36	617	.0314	315	D	8	10	13	8	18	
Magnesium.....	Mg.		24.6	1.743	1,382			M	4					
Manganese.....	Mn.		55.7	8.013	3,452	.01217		D	7			2		
Mercury.....	Hg.		200	13.596	—40	.0318		M	2	12		13		280
Nickel.....	Ni.		58.8	8.82	2,912	.1086		M	8	5	9	18		560
Palladium.....	Pd.		106.47	11.8	3,632	.0593	315	M	9	4	38	18		
Platinum.....	Pt.		197.1	21.5	3,992	.0324	315	M						
Potassium.....	K.		39.13	.865	131	.1695								
Rhodium.....	Rh.		104.3	12.1	4,352	.0580		D	14					
Silver.....	Ag.		107.93	10.53	1,832	.0570	315	D	9	2	100	100	400	
Sodium.....	Na.		23.04	.972	194	.2934		D	6		36			
Tin.....	Sn.	4,700	118.	7.294	428	.0562	315	D	8	12	42	12	48	
Tungsten.....	W.		184.	17.6	4,352	.0334		D	16					
Zinc.....	Zn.	7,500	65.04	7.146	707	.0955	315	D	3	9	64	29	75	

This list does not include a number of rare Metals which are known only in the laboratory, and have little importance as yet in the arts.



Iron and steel, though strictly alloys, are usually spoken of by the mechanic as metals; and none are so valuable as these. A few words on their origin and production will be read with interest by all mechanicians who desire to learn the operations involved in the manufacture of the materials which they are constantly using, not only for the construction of every description of mechanism, but also in the form of tools and appliances by which rough metal is wrought to shape.

Pure metallic iron has but little commercial use, and in this state is comparatively unknown; it is when combined with carbon, sometimes modified by other elements, that pure iron becomes the iron of commerce, and is known as malleable iron, steel, and cast iron, as the proportion of carbon is increased. Pure iron may be obtained by placing a mixture of magnetic oxide of iron and fragments of commercial iron, such as filings, in a crucible, and heating to a white heat—the crucible being meanwhile covered. The pure iron thus obtained is softer than ordinary soft malleable iron; it is very tenacious and ductile, and its malleability is not affected by heating and suddenly cooling. Though it does not retain magnetism, its magnetic power is very high. The more free from impurities, the higher will be the electrical conductivity of the metal and the greater the heat required for its fusion—admixture of carbon reducing the point at which pure iron melts, which is but little below the melting-point of platinum. Though unaffected by dry air at ordinary temperatures, iron, when in a state of very fine division, is liable to spontaneous combustion.

Heated in contact with the atmosphere, as at the ordinary smith's forge, layers of scale form on the exposed surface, which easily detach themselves if the bulk is hammered; the outer scale is fusible only at a very high temperature; it is very brittle and highly magnetic. Malleable iron and steel

have a curious property imparted to them when united with sulphur, to which they have great affinity; a very small percentage has the effect of rendering the metal "red short"—that is unworkable at a red heat—whilst it may be wrought with facility when cold. The addition of copper has a similar effect. The reverse effect results from the presence of phosphorus, an infinitesimal proportion causing marked alteration in the working qualities of the metal; the tenacity is very sensibly impaired by even a half per cent., and the metal shows decided signs of being "cold short"—that is, unworkable in a cold state—but when heated it may be worked easily.

It is chiefly by the admixture of carbon that iron becomes the useful well-known iron and steel which are familiar in workshop practice. Carbon and iron do not combine at ordinary temperatures; but when raised to redness and above that heat, combination is effected with more or less rapidity. In cast iron, the proportion of carbon may be something like five per cent., the quantity gradually decreasing in cast steel, shear steel and iron, in which the presence of carbon may be but barely traceable; the addition of sulphur, phosphorus, silicon and manganese to carbonised iron is usually practised in the course of manufacture with the object of obtaining results such as have been previously pointed out.

The treatment of iron ore in furnaces has generally for its object the production of pig iron, which is a material yet unfit for working. It cannot be welded, and, in fact, cannot be wrought with the hammer at all. This pig iron has always an admixture of some foreign material, and is charged with carbon to a large percentage. When carbon exists in but very small proportion, the metal is malleable or wrought iron—that is, the iron of commerce—varying in quality and physical structure according to the constituents and the treatment they have received. When melted and allowed to cool, the fracture

is crystalline or granular, assuming a fibrous structure after having been rolled or hammered, this process giving at the same time a great increase in tenacity. The melting-point of malleable iron is governed by the amount of carbon it contains; a large percentage of carbon rendering it more easily fused. Before this point is reached, the metal assumes a soft condition, and, when in that state, if two clean surfaces are brought in contact and adhesion forced, they will unite and form one solid piece. This process is termed "welding," and may be effected with ease by hammering when sufficiently hot any good malleable iron, though the presence of even minute proportions of foreign matters will sometimes prevent all efforts to weld. Metal which is "red short" will of course be practically unweldable. Hardness and brittleness are the effects of continued hammering on cold iron. When heated to whiteness, if exposed to air, the iron burns, and is rendered unfit for welding. In that state, it is called "burnt iron." All malleable iron is strongly affected by magnetism, but will not retain magnetic power.

Bar iron is supplied in various grades, the commonest being that which has been but once passed through the rolling mills; the next quality is that produced by taking lengths of No. 1 and welding them together to form a solid bar made up of several; this process is repeated to produce better, and so on. The continued repetition of the processes of welding and rolling renders the metal more ductile and in every way better fitted for engineering purposes. This system is most completely developed in the process called "faggoting," which consists of binding a large number of small bars together in the form of a faggot and heating the whole to welding temperature, and consolidating the mass by hammering. Carriage axles are so made; and for the production of gun barrels and the best class of iron lathe-mandrels the plan is still further developed.



Steel, which is so abundantly used by the mechanic for the manufacture of the tools used for all purposes, is, in its physical structure, midway between malleable iron and pig iron. Malleable iron has a percentage of from the merest trace to .3 of carbon, though this latter combination will be metal of decidedly steely characteristics, and whether to be classed as iron or steel will be dependent on the presence of other materials which influence the one which predominates. A proportion of 2.0 per cent. of carbon will produce pig iron; the intermediate proportions in combinations resulting in steel proper, which partakes, more or less, of the characteristics of pig or of malleable iron as the presence of carbon decreases. The precise point at which metal ceases to be steel and becomes pig or malleable iron, as the case may be, is perhaps hard to determine, but a generally-accepted distinction is, that when heated to a full blood-red heat and plunged into cold water, *steel* becomes hardened; on iron the same process has not that effect. This fact of steel being rendered so extremely hard by such a simple process is a most important one, and at once places this metal foremost amongst those used for cutting-tools and implements of every description. The subject of hardening steel is treated upon in another chapter.

Dr. Percy, in his "Metallurgy of Iron and Steel," defines steel as iron containing a small percentage of carbon, the alloy having the property of taking a temper; others define as steel all alloys of iron which have been cast in malleable masses; and Sir Joseph Whitworth considered that steel should be defined mechanically by a coefficient representing the sum of its strength and ductility.

With the object of having universally-adopted names which should indicate the nature and the distinction between iron and steels, an International Committee, appointed at Phila-

delphia, resolved that the following should be recommended :—

1. That all malleable compounds of iron, with its ordinary ingredients, which are aggregated from pasty masses, or from piles, or from any form of iron not in a fluid state, and which will not sensibly harden and temper, and which generally resemble what is called wrought iron, shall be called weld iron (German, *schweisseisen* ; French, *fer soude*).

2. That such compounds when they will from any cause harden and temper, and which resemble what is now called “puddled steel,” shall be called weld steel (German, *schweiss stahl* ; French, *acier soude*).

3. That all compounds of iron, with its ordinary ingredients, which have been cast from a fluid state into malleable masses, and which will not sensibly harden by being quenched in water while at a red heat, shall be called ingot iron (German, *flusseisen* ; French, *fer fondu*)

4. That all such compounds, when they shall from any cause so harden, shall be called ingot steel (German, *fluss stahl* ; French, *acier fondu*).

The main line of demarcation here laid down lies in the capability to harden. Steel which will harden by heating to any temperature and using any quenching liquid is termed weld steel. That which will harden by being heated to redness and quenched in water is termed steel.

To obtain sound ingots of cast steel from high-class iron, it is necessary to boil the steel for some time after it has become fluid, and then allow it to cool to a certain temperature before it is poured into the mould. The process is called “killing” the steel, and it is an axiom that the higher the quality of the steel the more “killing” it takes. It is in this part of the process of melting crucible cast-steel that the virtue of the process consists ; and the cost and quality of the

cast steel produced depend in a large degree upon the skill brought to bear upon the killing.

Next to quality of steel, by which is meant the percentage of phosphorus, sulphur, silicon, manganese, &c., the most important thing is temper, or percentage of carbon. For many purposes, indeed, temper is of more importance than quality. Nothing is more common than for steel to be rejected as bad in quality because it has been used for a purpose for which the temper was unsuitable. The following is a list of the most useful "tempers" of cast steel :—

*Razor Temper* ( $1\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. carbon).—This steel is so easily burnt, by being overheated, that it can be placed in the hands of only a very skilful workman. When properly treated, it will do twice the work of ordinary tool steel for turning chilled rolls, &c.

*Saw-file Temper* ( $1\frac{3}{8}$  per cent. carbon).—This steel requires careful treatment; and, although it will stand more fire than the preceding temper, should not be heated above a cherry red.

*Tool Temper* ( $1\frac{1}{4}$  per cent. carbon).—The most useful temper for turning tools, drills and planing-machine tools in the hands of ordinary workmen. It is possible to weld cast steel of this temper, but not without care and skill.

*Spindle Temper* ( $1\frac{1}{8}$  per cent. carbon).—A very useful temper for mill-picks, circular cutters, very large turning tools, taps, screwing dies, &c. This temper requires considerable care in welding.

*Chisel Temper* (1 per cent. carbon).—An extremely useful temper, combining as it does, great toughness in the unhardened state with the capacity of hardening at a low heat. It may also be welded without much difficulty. It is consequently well adapted for tools, where the unhardened part is required to stand the blow of a hammer without chipping, but



where a hard cutting edge is required, such as cold chisels, hot setts, &c.

*Sett Temper* ( $\frac{7}{8}$  per cent. carbon).—This temper is adapted for tools where the chief punishment is on the unhardened part, such as cold setts, which have to stand the blows of a very heavy hammer.

*Die Temper* ( $\frac{3}{4}$  per cent. carbon).—The most suitable temper for tools where the surface only is required to be hard, and where the capacity to withstand great pressure is of importance, such as stamping or pressing dies, boiler-cups, &c. Both the last two tempers may be easily welded by a mechanic accustomed to weld cast steel.

There are also many peculiar kinds of steel, only some of which can obtain brief mention. A special steel for taps, called mild-centred, is made by converting an ingot of very mild cast steel, so that the additional carbon only penetrates a short distance. These bars are afterwards hammered or rolled down to the size required, and have the advantage of possessing a hard surface without losing the toughness of the mild centre.

Another special steel, somewhat analogous, is produced by melting a hard steel on to a slab of iron or very mild steel heated hot enough to weld with the molten steel, so that a bar may be produced, one side of which is iron and the other side steel, the quantity of each being regulated as may be required.

A kind of special steel, used for turning tools for chilled rolls and some other purposes, is made by adding a percentage of wolfram, or, as the metal is more generally called, tungsten, sometimes with and sometimes without carbon, sometimes to such an extent that it can be used without hardening in water. Special steel of this kind has the finest grain that can be produced, but it is so brittle that in the hands of any but

exceptionally skilled workmen it is useless. The addition of chromium, instead of wolfram, has somewhat the same effect.

Gold, silver and copper may be forged either when red-hot or cold, as soon as they have been purified from their earthy matters and fused into ingots ; and the alloys of gold, silver and copper are also malleable either red-hot or cold. Fine or pure gold and silver are but little used alone ; the alloy is, in many cases, introduced less with the view of depreciating their value than of adding to their hardness, tenacity and ductility. The processes which the most severely test these qualities, namely, drawing the finest wires and beating gold and silver leaf, are not performed with the pure metals, but gold is alloyed with copper for a red tint, with silver for a green, and with both for intermediate shades. Silver is alloyed with copper only, and when the quantity is small its colour suffers but slightly from the addition, although all its working qualities are greatly improved, pure silver being little used.

Lead and tin are malleable, flexible, ductile and inelastic whilst cold, but when their temperatures much exceed about half-way toward their melting heats, they are exceedingly brittle and tender, owing to their reduced cohesion.

Zinc, when cast in thin cakes, is somewhat brittle when cold, but when it is raised to about  $300^{\circ}$  Fahr. its toughness is so far increased that its manufacture into sheets by means of rollers is then admissible ; it becomes malleable zinc, and retains the malleable and ductile character in a moderate degree, even when cold, but in bending rather thick plates it is advisable to warm them to avoid fracture. When zinc is remelted, it resumes its original crystalline condition.

An alloy is a combination by fusion of two or more metals. Metallic compounds containing mercury are *amalgams*. The

best-known, and perhaps the most generally useful alloy, is brass, which is formed by the fusion together of copper and zinc. Bronze made of copper and tin is a much more ancient alloy than brass, and has been known from remote antiquity.

All alloys are opaque, have a metallic lustre, are more or less elastic, ductile and malleable, and are good conductors of heat and electricity. Those consisting of metals of very different degrees of fusibility are usually malleable when cold and brittle when hot. Metals do not unite indifferently with each other, but have certain affinities. Alloys are generally harder and less ductile than the mean of their constituents, and their specific gravity is usually either greater or less than this mean. The melting-point of alloys is usually below that of either of the metals composing them: thus an alloy of eight parts bismuth, five lead and three tin, fuses at the heat of boiling water, that is  $212^{\circ}$  F.

Alloys very frequently possess more tenacity than their constituents would seem to indicate: thus an alloy of twelve parts lead and one zinc has double the tenacity of the latter metal and about six times that of lead. The malleability and ductility of alloys are in a great measure assignable to the degrees in which the metals of which they are respectively composed possess these characteristics.

A very slight modification of the components often produces a great change in the mechanical properties; brass, containing two or three per cent. of lead, is most readily turned, but works badly under the hammer, while that of the best quality for hammering is not turned with facility, owing to its toughness.

It appears to be scarcely possible to give precise general rules by which the properties of alloys may be safely inferred from those of their constituents; for although, in many cases, the working qualities and appearance of an alloy may be nearly a mean proportional between the nature and qualities of



the metals composing it, yet in other and frequent instances the deviations are excessive, as will be seen by several of the examples given in the following pages.

When lead, a soft and malleable metal, is combined with antimony, which is hard, brittle and crystalline, in the proportions of from twelve to fifty parts of lead to one of antimony, a flexible alloy is obtained, resembling lead, but somewhat harder, and which is rolled into sheets for sheathing ships. Six parts of lead and one of antimony are used for the large, soft, printers' types, which will bend slightly, but are considerably harder than the foregoing; and three parts of lead and one of antimony are employed for the smallest types, that are very hard and brittle, and will not bend at all; antimony, being the more expensive metal, is used in the smallest quantity that will suffice. The difference in specific gravity between lead and antimony constantly interferes, and unless the type metal is frequently stirred, the lead, from being the heavier metal, sinks to the bottom, and the antimony is disproportionately used from the surface. In the above examples, the differences arising from the proportions appear intelligible, as when the soft lead prevails, the mixture is much like the lead; and as the hard, brittle antimony is increased, the alloy becomes hardened and more brittle. With the proportion of four to one, the fracture is neither reluctant like that of lead, nor foliated like that of antimony, but assumes very nearly the grain and colour of some kinds of steel and cast iron.

The alloys of lead and tin partake of the general nature of these two metals; they are flexible when cold, even with certain additions of the brittle metals, antimony and bismuth, or of the fluid metal, mercury; but they crumble with a small increase of temperature, as these alloys melt at a lower degree than either of their components, to which circumstance we are indebted for the very fusible alloys. When the tin and lead

are alloyed, the former metal imparts to the mixture some of its hardness, whiteness and fusibility in proportion to its quantity, as seen in the various qualities of pewter, in which, however, copper, and sometimes zinc or antimony, are found. The same agreement is not always met with, as nine parts of copper, which is red, and one part of tin, which is white, both very malleable and ductile metals, make the tough, rigid metal used in brass ordnance, from which it obtains its modern name of gun-metal, but which admits neither of rolling nor of drawing into wire ; the same alloy is described by Pliny as the soft bronze of his day. An increased addition of the tin, the softer metal, produces a gradual increase of hardness in the mixture ; with about one-sixth of tin, the alloy assumes its maximum hardness consistent with its application to mechanical uses ; with one-fourth to one-third tin, it becomes highly elastic and sonorous, and its brittleness rather than its hardness is greatly increased.

Zinc and lead will not combine without the assistance of arsenic, unless the lead is in very small quantity ; the arsenic makes this and other alloys very brittle. Zinc and tin make, as may be supposed, somewhat hard and brittle alloys, but none of the zinc alloys, except that with copper, constituting brass, are much used.

With two parts copper and one part tin, the alloy is so hard as not to admit of being cut with steel tools, but it crumbles under their action ; when struck with a hammer, or even suddenly warmed, it flies in pieces, and clearly shows a structure highly crystalline, instead of malleable. The alloy has no trace of the red colour of the copper, but it is quite white, susceptible of an exquisite polish, and, being little disposed to tarnish, it is most perfectly adapted to the reflecting speculums of telescopes and other instruments, for which purpose alone it is used.

Copper, when combined in the same proportions with a different metal, also light-coloured and fusible—namely, two parts of copper with one of zinc (which latter metal is of a bluish-white and crystalline, whereas tin is very ductile)—makes an alloy of entirely opposite character to the speculum metal, namely, the soft yellow brass, which becomes by hammering very elastic and ductile, and is very easily cut and filed.

Again, the same proportions—namely, two parts of copper and one of lead—make a common, inferior metal, called pot-metal, or cock-metal. This alloy is much softer than brass, and hardly possesses malleability; for example, when a beer-tap is driven into the cask, immediately after it has been scalded, the blow occasionally breaks it in pieces, from its reduced cohesion.

Another proof of the inferior attachment of the copper and lead exists in the fact that, if the moulds are opened before the castings are cooled almost enough to be handled, the lead will ooze out and appear on the surface in globules. This also occurs to a less extent in gun-metal, which should not on that account be too rapidly exposed to the air; or the tin *strikes to the surface*, as it is called, and makes it particularly hard at those parts, from the proportional increase of the tin. In casting large masses of gun-metal, it frequently happens that little hard lumps, consisting of nearly half tin, work up to the surface of the runners, or pouring places, during the time the metal is cooling.

In brass this separation scarcely happens, and these moulds may be opened whilst the castings are red-hot without such occurrence; from which it appears that the copper and zinc are in more perfect union than the alloys of copper with tin and with lead.

When dissimilar metals are combined, as the fusible lead, tin, or zinc, with the less fusible copper, gold, or silver, the




malleability of the alloys, when cold, is less than that of the superior metal, and when heated barely to redness they fall in pieces under the hammer ; and therefore brass, gun-metal, etc. when red-hot, must be treated with caution and tenderness, Muntz's patent metal, which is a species of brass, and is rolled red hot, appears rather a contradiction to this ; but probably this alloy, like the ingots of cast steel, requires at first a very nice attention to the force applied. The action of rollers is also more regular than that of the hammer, and soon gives rise to the fibrous character, which in metals is the element of strength when it is uniformly distributed throughout their substance.

Annealing is a necessary process in the manufacture by drawing of wire and small tubing, and also in making brass, copper, or sheet-iron vessels by hammering and rolling ; the metal, by compression, becoming hard and brittle, too much so for further reduction until annealed, after which it recovers its former softness and pliability.

## CHAPTER II.

### *IRON AND ITS TREATMENT.*

HE process of working iron and steel at the forge, as practised by blacksmiths, is designated forging—an art which consists in giving to iron every possible shape, either by beating out the article to be fashioned from a bar of metal, or by uniting various pieces of different shapes and sizes to form a composite mass of the required dimensions ; the parts being joined together by “welding” at a heat very nearly approaching the melting-point of the metal operated on, thus forming a join equal in homogeneity to the solid metal. A few general principles of the art of forging will be of great service to most mechanics, as—though probably not, as a rule, equipped with a regular smithy, furnished with forge, anvil, and so forth—they are continually obliged to perform the process with more or less appropriate tools, and generally under disadvantageous circumstances ; the kitchen fire sometimes serving for a forge, and not unfrequently a flat-iron has to do duty as an anvil.

The iron chosen for the work in hand should be proportionate in size and quality to the exigencies to which it has to be applied. If the object to be wrought can be made from a piece of plain bar iron, it will only be necessary to raise it to a white heat in the fire, then lay it on the anvil and beat into shape with a hammer till the iron becomes a dull red colour. The hammering may be continued till the metal becomes almost black, and by thus prolonging the operation the metal is made more homogeneous, the cracks are welded together, and the

metal made stronger and more close in texture. The method of making the article being forged will, of course, mainly depend on its shape ; but, suppose we wish to make a bolt of the shape usually called coach bolts, the following details will be interesting. The head of the bolt can be made by two methods—by “upsetting” and by “welding.”

The first plan is to heat the extreme end of the rod to a good white heat, and then spread it by striking it on the end with a hammer, or, as is more frequently done, by holding the bar of iron itself in the hands and striking it, end on, on the anvil. This spreads the metal diameterwise, and will thus produce sufficient protuberance to make a head. If the end appears inclined to crack at all, the extreme point or end of the rod should be slightly cooled by immersing the end in cold water, or resting it for a short time against the face of the anvil ; this proceeding will make the end harder and less susceptible of cracking—in fact, the end itself will not be materially altered in shape, but will be driven bodily into the rod, which must of course expand sideways in a proportionate degree to the quantity of metal so driven in. It will be, of course, necessary to further shape the head to get a good square shoulder. For this purpose, the bolt blank has to be driven into a correspondingly-shaped hole made in a piece of flat iron. The end of the rod must be heated and the plain part of the bolt put through ; by blows on the head the blank is driven in till the head is flat against the hole in which the shank is. The hot metal is readily compressed to the form desired by using swages of any particular form. Should a mushroom-headed bolt be wanted, a swage with a corresponding hollow is placed against the red-hot bolt-head, and all the superfluous metal is driven through the plate, leaving only sufficient to fill completely the hollow in the swage. The hole in the plate would, of course, be square, so as to



produce the square shoulder requisite with mushroom-headed bolts, so as to prevent the bolt turning round when the nut is being screwed on and off.

The other plan of making a head or other protuberance is by welding on to the bar a separate piece of metal, which has first to be made into the form of a ferrule, the diameter of which must not, however, be so large as that of the iron bar to which it has to be welded. The sectional shape of the metal from which the ferrule has to be made is perfectly immaterial, though it should be as near as may be of the form intended for the finished article—pieces square, round, flat, oblong, semi-circular, &c., may be used for making the ferrules to be welded on; the substance of the added metal should be considerably more than the finished size of the bolt-head, as, though it may be reduced to almost any extent by hammering, it will be very difficult, if not impossible, to make the welded protuberance larger. When the ferrule is bent roughly into the shape required before being welded on to the main part of the bolt, it should not join as a perfect ring, but the two ends should gape slightly, and the ring being then put on the rod and the whole raised to a welding heat, on hammering the metal, the ring will be expanded and so close the crack mentioned.

In some cases, it is requisite to form a swelling on a bar of iron at some distance from its end, as, for instance, when making a spindle for a grindstone to run between staples; this swelling is made by heating the bar to nearly a white heat just at that part where the swelling should come, the metal on both sides being kept comparatively at a low heat, and then by striking the bar on the end the hot metal will yield and expand, forming a swelling.

To effect a proper weld, the iron, when heated to very nearly the required heat, must have sprinkled over it, at the

points of contact, a little silver sand. The metal is then put back into the forge fire, and the heat raised to welding point, the sand melting and forming a vitreous covering, which preserves the iron from the effects of the sulphurous fumes escaping from the coal, and also prevents the ashes of the fire from adhering to the metal, in which case, on the application of the hammer, they would become embedded in the iron, and so spoil its texture. The glassy covering also prevents the oxidising and scaling action of the fire.

Some of the errors in forging are over-heating, over-working and lack of proportionate heating and working. In a welding state, fibrous wrought iron approaches the state of fusion without reaching it. In the cupola, the object is to drive the iron to a fluid state as rapidly as possible, and the piece of pig iron in the cupola melts and runs from the outside while its central core is only at a red heat. Such uneven heating will not do for the weld; the iron must be evenly heated all through, and not be merely at a white heat outside. A "soaking heat" is necessary for a weld, and this is why sand is thrown over the iron while at a white heat; the sand is not a flux: it forms a protection, allowing the interior of the iron to be heated, while protecting the outside from burning and defending it from cooling.

There must be no hurry about heating for a weld; there must be no forcing of the bellows or blower blast; a steady, quiet, roasting heat is necessary. But the weld itself must be quick work, but not too much of it. In this latter part of the work is the most frequent error. The edges of the weld are sometimes hammered down until almost cold, and every blow given after the weld heat is gone drives some scale into the iron to weaken the weld. This is the fault in those cases where a weld is discovered in after use by torsion or tension. A good weld will never show its line of junction by weakness.

But a weld that is forced after the first stage of cooling, although it may "stick" for a time, will not last when put to a working strain.

In joining together bars of iron, end to end—as is necessary, supposing a piece cannot be found sufficiently long for the purpose required—these particulars must be borne in mind:—The ends to be joined together by welding should, in the first place, be slightly "upset," which is the technical way of expressing the operation of spreading the iron diameterwise, by heating the end and striking the bar in the direction of its length, much in the same way as a cold chisel is struck when in use; this will cause the ends to be somewhat larger than the original diameter of the rod; the faces of the ends are then beat off by the hammer to form a scarf joint, and the two pieces are made hot in the forge fire. On their attaining a welding heat, the two pieces are laid together and a weld effected by light blows with the hammer, and as soon as the two are found to be really joined, that part is put in the fire and re-heated to white heat, the join being completed by hammering. If the operation has been carried out properly, the welded joint may be so neatly done that it is only by very critical examination that it can be detected at all.

Ordinarily less care is taken of the "jump weld" in progress than the "scarf weld," although, from the less amount of welding surface exposed, it would be considered that to be more careful was an absolute necessity. In the "jump weld," or the "butt weld," as it is indifferently called, the two ends of the bars to be united are upset by heating and hammering against them to produce a swell sufficient to allow for the burning and scaling of the heat and hammering, and the two end faces of the bars, after proper heating, are brought together and fastened by a few light taps on the other ends of the bars. This fastening is enough for one heat; the united bar



should be immediately returned to the fire and reheated before the joint is hammered down to size. The reason is that all the outside of the upset is comparatively cool when the central portion of the bars are "stuck," and should be again heated to the welding heat before being hammered on the outer portions. There are smiths who boast of being able to make a butt weld on a two-inch bar at a single heat; circumstances must be favourable when this can be done.

Iron is always subject to fractures lengthways of the metal. These are caused by the non-adhesion of the particles through the intervention of some foreign matter, usually in the early stages of manufacture. By constant forging, these flaws may be very greatly reduced in magnitude; and "faggoted iron" is the best which is to be obtained for tenacity. Lathe mandrels are made of faggots of iron, with steel collars welded on for the bearings. The method of making these faggots is to take a quantity of small pieces of iron of good quality, and generally square section, and gradually to weld these into a thick cylindrical piece.

Suppose three pieces of  $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch square iron were welded together into a solid bar, twisting each piece separately, and the whole together, so that the molecular formation of the complete bar will be as equal as possible, it will be understood that such a bar will be far more trustworthy as a whole than would be either of its component pieces taken at a proportionate value. If three such compound bars were then welded together, still twisting each as before, the homogeneousness of the bar would be still further improved; and by again repeating the process, and thus welding twenty-seven distinct bars into a solid mass, the texture of this will be far more uniform and good than could be obtained in iron produced in the usual way of making rolled bars. The method here given is, as above stated, largely adopted for making lathe mandrels, and

the iron mandrels so produced are better than those made of cast steel for standing the knocking about to which a lathe is generally subjected in an engineer's shop.

Iron may have a steel-like surface imparted to it by the process known as case-hardening. After going through the process, the iron articles may often serve the purpose of steel.

Steel articles which require to be hardened are wrought to their proper form and filed to shape when the metal is in its softest state, and the finished article is then hardened, as described in Chapter III., and can be rendered bright and polished by the application of emery in some form. This peculiar quality of hardening is dependent on the amount of carburisation of the steel, and the mechanician has availed himself of this knowledge to produce on iron a surface of steel which is capable of being hardened by the same process as though the article were of solid steel, though in this case the hard part is only skin deep. It is the absence of a necessary proportion of carbon in wrought iron that renders it unsusceptible of hardening, and the deficiency of carbon is supplied to the surface of the iron by heating it to redness in close contact with leather, bones, or other animal refuse rich in the required element. Chemicals have been employed to produce the same effect, and prussiate of potash or ferrocyanide of potassium, plentifully applied to the red-hot iron, will answer equally well. The heat decomposes the prussiate of potash, and the liberated carbon combining with the iron forms a coat of steel upon the surface.

The latter materials are those most commonly used for small articles which may be wanted in a hurry; and the process of case-hardening simply consists in heating the iron to redness, sprinkling its surface plentifully with one of the above chemicals, then returning it to the fire to allow the car-

burisation to take effect and to get the now steel to a hardening heat, and, on being suddenly cooled, the article will be hard as steel. The thickness of the hardened coating will be very slight. If a greater thickness be desired, this process must be repeated.

By the process of case-hardening, any articles, if of good iron, can be hardened to equal steel, but the hardening only penetrates skin deep. There is no occasion to temper the iron at all after case-hardening, and any parts of the objects can be rendered hard, leaving the other parts in their normal condition. An ordinary fire will furnish all the heat requisite. In the first place, provide sufficient of the hardening compound, made as follows :—Take equal parts of prussiate of potash, sal ammoniac and common salt; pulverise and thoroughly mix. The process of case-hardening is then conducted as follows :—First make the iron hot, and spread the compound over that part to be made hard; again put the iron in the fire and fuse the powder, allowing it to run all over the parts to be operated on. Up to this stage the metal should only be heated to a moderate extent, say, just bordering on red heat; the compound may be applied several times; the more put on, to a certain extent, the deeper will be the hardening; this is a detail which practice alone will enable one to determine. Having thoroughly melted a quantity of the powder, and allowed it to soak in at a dull red heat, raise the temperature to that required for hardening steel, a full blood red, and quench the article in cold water. The surface which has been operated on by the hardening powder will now be as hard as hardened steel, whilst that part which has not had any powder applied to it will be as soft as ever. This is the most simple process, and will be found very easy to perform. Prussiate of potash alone will effect the hardening, but the compound is better. A little practice will enable one to



estimate the exact quantity of powder requisite to produce the desired effect.

Case-hardening, when carried out on a more extensive scale, is effected by enclosing the articles to be case-hardened in wrought-iron boxes, together with animal refuse, such as above enumerated, and subjecting the whole to a continuous red heat, for a period of from twelve hours, extending in some cases to several days. At the end of that time—the carburisation having been effected—the articles are hardened by making red hot and suddenly cooling.

Exposing the iron to a red heat, for some hours, surrounded by leather cuttings or the parings of hoofs and horns, the whole being placed in a metal box of some kind, will likewise make the surface of the iron susceptible of being hardened on being cooled in cold water when at a red heat. The usual method of carrying out this last process as follows:—

Get a sheet-iron box, according in size to the quantity and size of the objects to be hardened, pulverise a sufficient quantity of bones into dust, and pack the iron in the bone-dust. Place the box, when packed with objects and dust, in the fire of an ordinary smithy, and gradually get the whole to a cherry-red heat throughout. When all is of an uniform heat, plunge into cold water, and the iron will receive a coating of steel from the carbon of the bones. This latter process is comparatively so long and tedious that it is scarcely likely to be employed on an emergency in preference to the one first described. However, the second finds favour amongst large manufacturers, and is said to be more efficacious in producing a deeper and more uniform hardened skin. For the purposes required in miscellaneous work, the prussiate of potash answers equally well, and few amateurs would care to spend hours—from six to twenty-four—in giving the furnace and contents the requisite attention whilst carrying out the animal refuse process,

An operation, having for its object an exactly opposite effect, is carried out in producing malleable cast iron, so termed from its being rendered somewhat malleable. The object of this process is to remove from the cast iron the excess of carbon, and so render it similar to soft steel or malleable iron ; and the object is effected by placing a decarbonising material in contact with the casting, for which powdered peroxides of iron are generally used, and the heat kept up for from three to six days. Such so-called malleable iron cannot be worked when heated, though it may be hammered to a certain extent when cold.

## CHAPTER III.

### *STEEL AND ITS TREATMENT.*

**A**LTHOUGH the characteristic property of steel, upon which its usefulness mainly depends, consists in its capacity for hardening, the oft repeated question, Why does steel harden? has never been satisfactorily answered. Until it is fully answered, all the different methods of hardening must necessarily partake more or less of the nature of experiments.

If we heat a piece of cast steel to redness and plunge it into clean water until its temperature is reduced to that of the water, the result will be that the steel will be hardened. The degree of the hardness will depend upon the quality of the steel, the temperature to which it was heated, and to a small degree upon the temperature of the water in which it was cooled. In any event, the operation will be termed that of hardening. If we reheat the steel a softening process will accompany the increasing temperature, until upon becoming again red hot it will assume its normal softness, and if allowed to cool in the atmosphere the effects of the first hardening will be entirely removed.

It is generally accepted that by heating and cooling steel in different degrees and at different rates of rapidity we may not only obtain a great difference between extremes of hardness and softness, but also almost any intermediate degree of hardness and softness between these extremes. Recent investigations have demonstrated the fact that, apart from its chemical composition, the tempering quality of steel is also



largely influenced by the degree of heat at which it is tempered, and also by the temperature, the conductivity and the capacity for heat, and the boiling point of the cooling liquid. And since the degree of the first hardening depended upon the quality of the steel, the degree to which it was heated and the temperature of the water in which it was cooled, it follows that the quality of the steel, as well as heating and temperature, must be uniform in all cases if uniform results are to be reached.

The higher the grade of steel, the lower the temperature at which it will harden, and the harder it will be if cooled in water from a given temperature.

The soft steels, approaching more in their nature to wrought iron, are exceedingly difficult to harden and temper to a uniform degree, because of the difficulty experienced in producing them of uniform grade. Many kinds of these steels are made of so low a grade as to make it difficult to determine the line of demarcation separating them from wrought iron.

While the capacity of steel to cut is mainly due to the temper, the durability of the cutting edge is determined by the quality of the steel and its adaptability to the kind of work upon which it is employed. For cutting tools, the best of cast steel is employed. The degree of temper is varied to accommodate the nature of the duty. The cost of steel of which a tool is made is of very little importance compared to its efficiency, because this cost is very little in comparison with that of performing the duty. For example, a steel turning-tool weighing but two or three pounds will cut off many thousand pounds of iron, the operation lasting perhaps several weeks. The speed at which this tool will cut—or, in other words, the time it will take to cut off a given amount of iron—will vary 30 or 40 per cent. from a very slight difference in the quality of the steel of which the tool is made. The cost

of the operator's time is so much greater than that of the steel used up in a given time as to render it, even in the case of cheap labour, always economical to employ the best of steel. With a given quality, however, the efficiency depends upon the skill employed in the forging, hardening and tempering of the tool, as well as upon its shape.

A practice sometimes prevails of withdrawing the steel from the water before it is quite cold, and many excellent hardeners and temperers withdraw the steel from the water when it has sufficient heat left in it to rapidly dry off the water adhering to it, the result being, it is claimed, to alter the degree of hardness to a practically imperceptible degree, but to add considerably to the strength of the hardened steel. To the skilful performance of these operations we must look for the difference in the quantity of work performed by different workmen, even when using the same grade of steel for similar duty.

When steel arrives in the user's hands, the first process which it undergoes is forging it into the shape required. This is really two processes—first, that of heating it to make it malleable; and second, that of hammering it, while it is hot, into the required shape. The golden rule in forging steel is to heat it as little as possible before it is forged, and to hammer it as much as possible in the process of forging. It is impossible to lay down exact rules for each of the thousands of tools for which steel is used. The treatment of each tool in each process which it undergoes is an art that can be learnt only by practice. The worst fault that can be committed is to over-heat the steel. When steel is heated it becomes cross-grained; its silky texture is lost. To account for this change, we must fall back upon the mysterious and unknown laws of crystallisation. The fact remains that the fine grain has become coarse, and can only be restored by hammering or sudden cooling. If the temperature be raised above a certain point

the steel becomes what is technically called "burnt," and the amount of hammering which it would require to restore its fine grain would reduce it to a size too small for the required tool, and the steel must be condemned as spoilt. Overheating the fire is the primary cause of cracking in the water ; the percentage of phosphorus in it may be so high that the amount of heat absolutely necessary to forge it at all into the shape required may cause it to crack in hardening.

In heating steel to harden it there arise many considerations, the principal of which are as follows :—The size of an article will often be an important element for consideration in heating it, because, by heating steel in the open fire, it becomes decarbonised ; and it follows that, the smaller the article in sectional area, the more rapidly this decarbonisation takes place. In large bodies of metal the decarbonisation due to a single heating is not sufficient to have much practical significance ; but if a tool requires frequent renewal by forging, the constant re-heating will seriously impair its value, and, in any event, it is an advantage to maintain the quality of the steel at its maximum. To prevent decarbonisation for ordinary work, charcoal, instead of coal, is sometimes used ; and where hardening is not done continuously, it is a good practice ; because a few pieces of charcoal can be thrown upon the fire and be ready for use at a few minutes' notice. Charcoal should be used for the heating for the forging as well as for that for the hardening. Green coal should never be used for heating the steel for the hardening, even if it is for the forging process, because, while the steel is being well forged its quality is maintained, but afterwards the deterioration due to heating is much more rapid.

A coke suitable for heating to harden should be made and always kept on hand. To obtain such a coke, make a large



fire of small soft coal, well wetted and banked up upon the fire, and, with a round bar, make holes for the blast to come through. When the gas is burnt out of the interior coal, and the outside is well caked, it may be broken up with a bar, so that the gas may be burned out of the outside, and then the blast may be stopped and the coke placed away ready for use at a moment's notice. Good toolsmiths always keep a store of this coke for use in taking welding heats, as well as for hardening processes. It is desirable that the article be heated as quickly as possible, so as to avoid decarbonisation as much as possible. If an article has a very weak part, it is necessary to avoid resting that part upon the coal or charcoal of the fire, otherwise the weight may bend it; and in heating long slender pieces, they should bend evenly in the fire or furnace, or, when red hot, the unsupported parts will sag. In taking such pieces from the fire the object is to lift the edges vertically, so that the lifting shall not bend them; and this requires considerable skill, because it must be done quickly, or parts will get cooled and will warp, as well as not harden so much as the hotter parts.

The part of the tool required to be hardened must be heated through, and heated evenly, but must on no account be overheated. Our tool must be finished by sudden cooling, and if this does not give to the steel a fine grain and silky texture—if, after the cooling, the fracture, were it broken in the hardened part, should show a coarse grain and dull colour, instead of a fine grain and glossy lustre—our tool is spoiled. The special dangers to be avoided in hardening each kind of tool must be learned by experience. Some tools will warp if they are not plunged into the water in a certain way. Tools of one shape must cut the water like a knife, those of another shape must stab it like a dagger. Some tools are hardened in a saturated solution of salt, the older

the better, whilst others are best hardened under a stream of running water. Most tools have a tendency to water-crack if taken out of the water before they are absolutely cold. Where the edge of a tool only is hardened, care should be taken to move it up and down in the water, so as continually to change the water-level, lest the tool should crack at the water-level. Steel expands as it becomes heated; if one part becomes hotter than another it expands more, and the form of the steel changes to accommodate this local expansion, and this alteration of shape becomes permanent. In finished work this is of very great consideration, and, in the case of tools, often entirely destroys their value. If an article has unequal thicknesses it requires to be manipulated in the fire, so that the thin part shall not become heated in advance of the thicker body of the metal, or it will become distorted or warped; because the more solid parts are too strong to give way to permit the expansion, and the latter is accommodated by changing to the form of the weakest part of the article. The part having the smallest sectional area is not necessarily the weakest when in the fire, unless it is as hot as the rest of the body.

The necessity of heating an article according to its shape thus becomes apparent, and the aim should be to heat the article evenly all over, taking care especially that the thin parts shall not get hot first. If the steel is heated in the open fire, it may be necessary to take it from the fire occasionally and cool it, and to so hold it in the fire that the thin part is least exposed to the heat. If the article is large enough, the thin parts may be protected by wet ashes during the first part of the heating. If the article is of equal thickness all over, it is necessary to so turn it in the fire as to heat it uniformly all over. In every case, care should be taken not to heat the steel quickly. The heating, whether done in the open fire or in a heating bath, must be done uniformly, so it

may often be necessary to hold the article, for a time, with only the thick part in the heating material; in this case it should not be held quite still, but raised and lowered gradually and continuously, to ensure even heating.

One of the principal reasons why a high-class quality of steel is required for certain purposes is that it will suffer less injury by being heated to a greater degree, or by being heated and reheated a greater number of times, than inferior qualities of steel. In heating steel, the happy medium must be attained between heating it too much and too little, and between letting it lie too long "soaking" in the fire, and not "soaking" it through. Both the degree of temperature and the duration of the heat must be carefully watched.

Some tools, such as circular cutters, files, etc., after they are forged into the shape required, must have teeth cut into them. Before this can be successfully accomplished a preliminary process is necessary. Hammering or forging the steel into the shape required will have hardened the steel to such an extent as to make the cutting of teeth into it impossible or difficult; it must consequently be annealed. This process is a double process. The steel must be reheated as carefully as before, and afterwards cooled as slowly as possible. Many tools are only required to be hardened on a small part of their surface, and it is important that the unhardened parts should possess the maximum amount of toughness, with the minimum amount of brittleness that can be attained. These tools must also be annealed after they are forged. The process of annealing, or slow cooling, leaves the steel cross-grained, gives it its maximum of ductility, and causes it, in fact, to approach the properties of lead.

In softening steel, the first consideration is the purpose of the operation. If it is merely intended to draw the temper of an over-hardened piece of steel, its ultimate use will entirely

decide the question. Uniform and careful heating, and good judgment, acquired by intelligent practice, are the only safe guides. If, on the other hand, annealing for the purpose of restoration of ductility is intended, then the treatment the material has received, and the heat at which it was last worked, become most important considerations. Specific rules applicable to all cases cannot possibly be laid down, and the experience and good judgment of the steel worker must be relied upon.

The general rules governing annealing may be summed up as follows: Heat slowly and uniformly the entire piece to a temperature higher than that at which the metal was last worked—if hammered or straightened cold, to a bright red. Allow cooling to take place as slowly as possible and excluding the air. If the steel has not been heated above dark cherry red and is low in carbon, annealing in boiling water will give excellent results.

The surface of steel may be hardened by the aid of a powder composed of bichromate of potash, 6 oz.; prussiate of potash, 6 oz.; chloride of sodium, 22 oz.; all to be finely pulverised and to be thoroughly mixed. Heat the steel to a dull red, cover with a thick coating of the powder, heat again to cherry red, and plunge in cold water. Fine steel, as well as iron, may be case-hardened with this powder if not made too hot; a few trials will determine the difference in the heat to use to thoroughly harden through, or merely case-harden. A strong solution of this powder will give a harder temper than common water.

We now come to the cooling or quenching, which requires as much skill as the heating to prevent warping and cracking, and to straighten the article as much as possible during the cooling process. As to the influence of the cooling liquid upon the tempering of the steel, there is yet a large field of



inquiry still open. It is a fact that the temperature of the cooling liquid in itself furnishes no criterion of the hardness to be obtained. Steel may be hardened not only in cold water, but also in boiling water, boiling oil, melted lead, tin or zinc. Considering that steel loses a great deal of its hardness—"that the temper is drawn"—by heating it to about 600° F., it seems paradoxical to assert that cooling it in a metal bath of 750° to 800° F. would harden it. Yet steel wire will harden in passing through a bath of melted zinc, and lose its temper again if allowed to remain for a long time in the same bath. Knowing that hardening and tempering is accompanied by a change of the internal structure of steel, and that such change cannot take place at a lower temperature than 900° F., we must conclude that the hardening of steel depends chiefly on the rapidity with which it is cooled from a temperature of about 950° F. to one below 950° F.—or, in other words, the rapidity with which its red heat is destroyed. The softening of steel, or drawing of the temper, is due to exposure to temperature below the above limits. The tempering of steel can no longer be admitted to be alone dependent on the temperature or conductivity of the cooling liquid. In fact, fused metals possess remarkable power of hardening.

The hardening power does not depend merely on the temperature and conductivity of the cooling fluid, but also on its capacity for heat and the height of its boiling point. It follows that the great hardening power of water must be attributed to its production of vapour rather than its conductivity. This becomes evident when it is remembered that water in contact with metal at a temperature of from 900° to 950° F. cannot, under ordinary pressure, remain in a liquid state, but must be rapidly converted into steam. Therefore, the heated steel remains enveloped by a film of steam until cooled. The formation of steam renders much heat latent,

thereby assisting the hardening process. Rapid motion of the steel greatly aids hardening under water : therefore we must further conclude that steel will be all the better hardened the more rapidly the steam formed is drawn away. With a view of accomplishing this, hardening under a running stream of water and hardening with a spray have been successfully employed, and have given better results as to degree of hardness and uniformity than the ordinary method of hardening under water. For tempering small articles, melted metal baths, especially tin, give the best results for uniformity of hardness, and since the certainty of the temperature of the bath is an important factor in the process, their use commends them to very favourable consideration.

Steel contracts in hardening, and contracts most where it is cooled most suddenly. If the hardened part join on to the unhardened part too suddenly, the steel at the junction will be in a dangerous state of tension which disposes it to crack, and it is wise to lessen the amount of tension by distributing it over as great an area as possible. In some tools, where the shape necessitates a great difference in the rapidity of cooling, it is wise to drill holes in the thicker parts where they will not interfere with the use of the tool—holes made neither for use nor ornament, but solely with a view of equalising the rapidity of the cooling of the various parts, so as to distribute the area of tension, and thus lessen the risk of cracking in hardening. The cooling should be performed with a view to prevent the contraction of the metal from warping the weaker parts ; and to aid this those parts are sometimes made a little hotter than the more solid parts of the article, the extra heat required to be extracted compensating in some degree for the diminution of sectional area from which the heat must be extracted. Water, for cooling, must be kept clean, and in that case it becomes better from use. It may be kept heated to

about 100° F., which will diminish the risk of having the article crack. Cracking occurs from the weaker parts having to give way to suit the contraction of other parts, and usually takes place in the sharp corners of the articles, or through the weakest section; in articles found to be liable to crack, such corners are made as rounded as possible. If the water is very cold, and the heat is extracted very rapidly from the outside, the liability to crack is increased, and in many cases the water is heated to nearly the boiling point, so as to retard the extraction of the heat. The hardening of the steel is due to the rapid extraction of its heat; increasing the temperature of the water diminishes the hardness of the steel; and it is necessary to counteract this effect as far as possible, which is done by adding salt to the water, the steel hardening more thoroughly in the saline mixture.

Hardening in oil is another mode of treating steel, which appears, to a certain extent, to attain by one process the change from lead into whalebone without passing through the intermediate glass stage, and is of great value for certain tools.

All articles that are straight or of the proper form when leaving the fire should be dipped vertically, and lowered steadily into the water; and if of weak section, or liable to crack or warp, they should be held, quite still, low down in the water until cooled quite through to the temperature of the water. If the article is taken from the water too soon, it will crack; and this is a common occurrence, the cracking often being accompanied by a sharp audible "click." Pieces of blade form should be dipped edgewise, the length of the article lying horizontally and the article lowered vertically and held quite still, because, by moving it laterally, the advancing side becomes cooled the quickest, and warping and cracking may ensue. Straight cylindrical pieces are dipped endwise

and vertically. When, however, the dipping process is performed with a view to leave sufficient heat in the body of the article to lower or temper the part dipped, the method of procedure is slightly varied.

So many causes may produce water-cracks, that it is often difficult to point out the precise cause in any given case. Perhaps the most common cause is overheating the steel in one or more of the processes which it passes through in the consumers' hands, or it may have been overheated in the process of forging, or rolling it into the dimensions required whilst in the hands of the manufacturer. A second cause may be found in the overmelting or too long boiling of the steel, causing it to part with too much of its occluded carbonic acid—a fault which may be attributed to the anxiety of the manufacturer to escape honeycombs in the ingot. A third cause may be sometimes discovered in the addition of too much manganese, added with the same motive. A fourth cause may curiously enough prove to be a deficiency of carbon, whilst in some cases too much will produce the same effect. A fifth cause may be the presence of too much phosphorus in the steel; but, after all, this may not be the fault of a greedy manufacturer who wants to make too great a percentage of profit: it might be the fault of a stingy consumer, who begrudges the cost of good steel, yet there is nothing more dear than cheap steel. It must be more economical to put five shillings' worth of labour upon steel that costs a shilling, to produce a tool that lasts a day, than to put the same value of labour upon steel that costs only ninepence, to produce a tool that only lasts half a day.

Tempering, when performed by a second operation, reducing the hardness obtained by a previous one, is dependent for its uniformity upon the uniformity of the first one. If a number of pieces of steel, of the same quality, be heated to an equal



temperature and plunged in water until cooled, and are subsequently tempered to the same shade of colour, they will all possess an equal degree of hardness; but if other pieces of steel of a different quality (this may be further specified by saying "containing a different percentage of carbon") be subjected to precisely the same processes, leaving upon them the same temper colour, though this latter batch will be uniform in hardness, it will not possess the same degree of hardness as the pieces of the first batch; temper colour may be used as proof of equality in the degree of temper in pieces of the same steel, but is not indicative of any determinate and uniform degree of hardness.

Since the introduction of methods of hardening and tempering, above referred to, the terms hardening and tempering have come to be used by many persons indiscriminately, and it is a fairly debatable question what process should be termed hardening and what tempering. Any degree of hardness less than that obtainable in a given quality of steel, heated to the brightest degree without causing the chemical change known to smiths as "burning the steel" to set in, must be a degree of temper, because it is a degree of hardness less than the maximum, notwithstanding that it would have no representative colour under the colour test.

A piece of hardened steel heated slightly, and allowed to cool again, becomes tempered. It suddenly changes from brittle glass to supple whalebone, and in the process of changing its nature, fortunately it changes colour, so that the workman can judge by the hue of the colour the extent of the elasticity which it has acquired, and can give to each tool the particular degree of temper which is most adapted to its special purpose. After the steel is hardened, if we polish one of its surfaces and slowly reheat it, that surface will assume various tints, beginning with a pale yellow and ending in a blue with a green tinge, each

colour appearing as the steel attains a definite temperature. By the appearance of the colours we are informed of the temperature of the steel, or in other words, how far, or to what extent the resoftening has progressed. This is taken advantage of by the machinist to obtain steel of any required degree of hardness less than that of the absolute hardness obtained by hardening, and is termed tempering. The temperatures at which these respective colours will appear are as follows:

	Fahr.
Very pale yellow... ..	430°
Straw yellow... ..	460°
Brown yellow... ..	500°
Light purple... ..	530°
Dark purple... ..	550°
Clear blue... ..	570°
Pale blue... ..	610°
Blue tinged with green... ..	630°

The various colours through which tempered steel successively passes are straw, gold, chocolate, purple, violet and blue. Of course, in passing from one colour to another, the steel passes through the intermediate tints. It really passes through an infinite series of colours, of which the six above-mentioned are arbitrarily selected as convenient stages. The elasticity of tempered steel is acquired at the expense of its hardness. It is supposed that the maximum of hardness and elasticity combined is obtained by tempering down to a straw colour.

To say that a piece of steel has been tempered to a straw colour implies that it was first hardened and then re-heated until the straw yellow appeared upon it, the temperature having arrived at 460° F., and that the reheating process was then discontinued. The presence of the straw colour, however, while evidence of temperature to which the heating took place, is no indication of the actual degree of hardness

of the steel, because that depends upon the degree to which the steel was hardened before the colour-test tempering was resorted to.

The presence of a colour obtained on a piece of steel by subjecting it to heat is therefore no evidence that the steel possesses any above its normal hardness, for steel ; wrought iron, and cast iron that has been softened to the lowest degree, will show all the colours on a polished surface, providing that the metals are heated to the necessary temperature ; thus the presence of colour is simply a proof that the steel has been heated to a certain temperature, but by no means proof that it possesses hardness, or indeed that the process of heating has in any way modified its hardness or softness, but any degree of hardness obtained from a temperature equal or less than the highest at which a colour would appear—that is 430° F.—will obviously be representable under the colour process by a colour, providing of course, that the steel was first thoroughly hardened.

It is well to adopt a tempering process that will determine with approximate accuracy the first heating temperature, such as by heating the article in some flux, as melted lead, melted salt, or melted glass, plunging it into a cooling mixture or liquid whose temperature can be maintained, by suitable means, somewhat equable, and drawing the temper in a bath maintained at the thermometrical temperature. By these means, the steel used being a brand of known uniformity, both the hardening and the tempering will give the greatest practically obtainable degree of temper, and the tools will be hardened more suitably to the requirements of the duty than is obtainable under the colour test. This plan is largely resorted to when large numbers of pieces require tempering, but if the articles are large, or when tempering requires to be done piecemeal and at odd times, it will not pay, as a rule, to keep heating

and tempering mixtures constantly ready upon the fire, and the open fire and colour gauge must be resorted to. The whole of the skill of the hardener and temperer is called into play under these latter conditions from the moment the steel is placed in the fire until it is cooled to the temperature of the water.

It is desirable to obtain any degree of hardness by a single process if possible. In some cases, by heating a known quality of steel to a definite temperature, and quenching it in l'iquid maintained at about an even temperature, the colour is becoming dispensed with, the conditions of heating and cooling being varied to give any degree of hardness. Another and a very desirable method of hardening and tempering is to heat in a flue of some kind maintained at the required temperature over the fire, and after quenching, instead of applying the colour test, provide a tempering bath composed of some substance heated to a temperature of from  $430^{\circ}$  to  $630^{\circ}$ . By placing the articles (after hardening them) in the tempering bath and heating it to a temperature equal to the colour of the temper required, we have but to cease heating the tempering bath when a thermometer marks the required temperature. A uniform degree of temper will be given to all the articles, and the operation will occupy much less time than would tempering by the colour test, because a l'iquid is much more easily kept at an equal temperature throughout its mass than are the heated sand, or hot pieces of metal, resorted to in tempering by the colour test. Another method of tempering is to heat the steel to a definite temperature, and cool or quench it in a liquid having sufficient greasiness or other quality which acts to retard its retraction of the heat from the steel, and thus give a temper at one operation. As an example of this kind of tempering, it is said that milk and water, mixed in proportions determined by experiment upon



the steel for which it was employed, has been found to give an excellent spring temper. Such tempering carefully conducted may be of the very best quality. A great deal, however, in this case depends upon the judgment of the operator; because very little variation in heating the steel or in the proportions of milk to water produces a wide variation in the degree of temper. If, on trial, the temper is too soft, the steel may be made hotter, or more water added to the milk. If the steel was heated as hot as practicable without increasing the danger of burning it, more water must be added, while if the steel was made red hot without being hot enough to cause the formation of clearly perceptible scale, the steel may be heated more. It is desirable, in all cases, but especially with a high quality of steel, not to heat it above a blood red heat, although sheer and spring steels may be, and often must be made hotter, in order to cause them to harden when quenched in water.

Hardening and tempering steel, as applied to cutting tools, are much more simple than when the same operations are required to give steel elasticity as well as durability of form, or to give durability to pieces of slight and irregular form of sufficient hardness to withstand abrasion. One reason of this is that for tools a special and uniform quality of steel is readily obtainable, which is known as tool steel. Special sizes and grades are made to suit the manufacture of any of the ordinary forms of tools. The materials purchased under the name of steel, whether crucible or otherwise, may vary so much as to seriously affect the degree of hardness or temper obtained by any specific process, even though of the same make and brand. Most difficulties are in obtaining a uniform degree of temper or in tempering without loss from water-cracks, &c. These defects may be overcome by varying the method to suit the quality of the steel.

This is not so much due to superior quality of the steel as to a precise knowledge of the processes necessary to temper such steel to the best advantage. We have no known method of practically ascertaining in the workshop the quality of a piece of steel unless it be by use. If we give a mechanic a piece of steel soft at one end and hard at the other end, the graduation proceeding uniformly from end to end, he can take a file and, after testing the hardness, mark upon the steel with tolerable accuracy the portions corresponding in hardness to a blue, a purple, a brown, and a straw colour, and he would know of what hardness to make a tool that would cut the steel at any particular section not too hard to entirely resist cutting. This knowledge is obtained from manipulations performed upon steel of all degrees of colour temper, but if we were to give him a piece of steel harder than any degree denoted by a colour, yet not of maximum hardness, he would be dealing with an utterly unknown quantity.

As a rule, the steel that shows a fracture of fine dull grain, the face of the fracture being comparatively level, is of better quality than that showing a coarse or granulated surface, brightness denoting hardness, and fibrousness, toughness.

Very few steels are as yet sufficiently uniform to render it practicable to employ an unchangeable method of tempering, and to this fact is largely due the use of particular brands of steel.

In tempering steel, regard must be had to the quality most essential in the special tool to be tempered. A turning tool is required to be very hard, and is often taken out of the water hot enough to temper itself down to a degree so slight that no colour is perceptible, whilst a spring is required to be very elastic, and may be tempered down to a blue.

A scientific explanation of the process of tempering steel has yet to be given, without mystifying one by talking unintelligibly about molecular re-arrangement and crystalline transformations.

## CHAPTER IV.

### *BRASS AND ITS TREATMENT.*

**B**RASS, as previously stated, is perhaps the best known and most generally useful alloy. It is formed by fusing together copper and zinc: different proportions of these metals produce brasses possessing very marked distinctive properties. The table on page 46 gives the composition of most useful alloys allied to brass. The proportions of the different ingredients are seldom precisely alike; these depend upon the requirements of various uses for which the alloys are intended. Peculiar qualities of the constituent metals also exercise considerable influence on the results—as has been mentioned on the first page.

Brass is fabled to have been first accidentally formed at the burning of Corinth 146 B.C.; but articles of brass have been discovered in the Egyptian tombs, which prove it to have had a much greater antiquity. Brass was known to the ancients as a more valuable kind of copper. The yellow colour was considered a natural quality, and was not supposed to indicate an alloy. Certain mines were much valued, as they yielded this gold-coloured copper, but after a time it was found that by melting copper with a certain earth (calamine), the copper was changed in colour. The nature of the change was still unsuspected.

Alloys of copper and zinc retain their malleability and ductility when the zinc is not above 33 to 40 per cent. of the alloy. When the zinc is in excess of this a crystalline character begins to prevail. An alloy of one copper to two zinc may be crumbled in a mortar when cold.

Yellow brass, that files and turns well, may consist of copper 4, zinc 1 to 2. A greater proportion of zinc makes it harder and less tractable; with less zinc it is more tenacious, and hangs to the file like copper. Yellow brass (copper 2, zinc 1) is hardened by the addition of two to three per cent. of tin, or made more malleable by the same proportion of lead.

There would be less diversity in the results of brass castings if what was put into a crucible came out of it. The volatility of some metals, and the varied melting points of others in the same mix, greatly interfere with uniformity in ordinary work. Zinc sublims (burns away) at 773 to 800 degrees, while the melting heat of the copper with which it should be intimately mixed in making brass—is nearly 1,750 degrees. Copper, zinc, tin and lead in varying proportions form alloys, always in definite quantity for a given alloy. The ease with which some of the metals are burned away at comparatively low temperatures renders it a very easy matter to make several different kinds of metal with the same mix. This very thing occurs, and the great difficulty in getting bearing brasses uniform in quality causes some engineers to babbitt all bearings as the best way to ensure uniformity. One lot of castings may be soft and tough, another hard, and so on.

Zinc is added the last thing as the crucible comes out of the furnace, and the mixing of the mass is a matter of uncertainty. If the metal is too hot for the zinc a large percentage of it goes off in the form of a greenish cloud of vapour, and the longer the stirring goes on the more escapes. The two metals which enter into the composition of brass have an affinity for each other, but they must be brought into intimate contact before they will combine. Some brassfounders use precautions to prevent volatilisation of the more fusible metals, introducing them under a cover of powdered charcoal on top of the copper.



## COMPOSITION OF BRASSES.

Names.	Copper.	Zinc.	Tin.	
German brass (common) ... ..	1	1		
Good yellow brass ... ..	2	1		
Brass wire ... ..	2	1		
Muntz's sheathing-metal ... ..	3	2		
Red brass, to be soldered ... ..	8	3		
Common brass ... ..	3	1		
Pinchbeck ... ..	4	1		
Revere's sheathing-metal (1830) ... ..	95	5		
Collins's red alloy for sheathing ... ..	8	1		
Collins's yellow alloy for sheathing ... ..	10	8		
Collins's white alloy for sheathing ... ..	1	16	16	
Tough brass for engine work ... ..	20	3	3	
Brass for heavy bearings ... ..	32	1	5	
Pinchbeck ... ..	4	1		
" ... ..	5	2		
Tombac ... ..	16	1	1	
Red tombac ... ..	88.8	11.2		
" ... ..	11	1		
Rolled brass ... ..	74.3	22.3	3.4	
Tutenag ... ..	50	31		19 Ni
Brass gilding-metal (bronze colour) ... ..	16	1-1 $\frac{1}{4}$		
Emerson's patent brass (English) ... ..	16	8		
Statuary brass (Versailles) ... ..	91.40	5.53	1.70	1.37 Pb.
Chantrey's hard alloy ... ..	32	5	5	
Manheim gold ... ..	4	1		
" ... ..	3	1		
Semilior ... ..	5	1		
Mosaic gold (Hamilton and Parker's patent) ... ..	32	33		
Mock platinum ... ..		5		8 Brass,
Bath Metal ... ..		9		32 Brass.
White brass ... ..	10	80	10	
Ormolu ... ..	48	52		
Speculum metal (Martin's patent) August 23, 1859 ... ..	100	19		16 Arg.
Mushet's sheathing metal (1823) ... ..	100	$\frac{1}{8}$		

The proportions are varied, and tin and antimony are added in some of the formulæ.

"Brass-finisher" is a term many understand as applied only to those who produce highly-finished brass work; but it is not so: the brass-finisher's work is not the superior class of

work supposed, most of it being comprised in gas fittings, ormolu mounts, &c., but the highest class of brass-finishing is a totally different process. Fittings for gas-work, all finished well enough for their several purposes, and as well done as the price paid for them will allow, as well as the mountings for furniture, must obviously be produced at a low price, in order to supply the demand for cheap work of this character, most of which is simply dipping, burnishing and lacquering.

Let us follow the process of finishing the highest class of brass work. Before commencing to polish, all marks of the file must be removed, and this is done thus:—Having used a superfine Lancashire file to smooth both the edges and the surfaces, take a piece of moderately fine emery paper and wrap it tightly, once only, round the file. By having many folds round the file the work becomes rounded at the edges, and so made to look like second-rate things. Some use emery sticks, made of pieces of planed wood about  $\frac{3}{8}$  inch thick and  $\frac{3}{4}$  inch wide, quite flat on the surfaces. They are covered with thin glue, and the emery powdered on to them, and then allowed to dry hard. Most common work is rubbed over, not to say finished, with emery cloth. This will not do for good work. The paper folded once round the file is used in a similar manner to the file, and when the file-marks disappear, and the paper is worn, a little oil should be used, which makes it cut smoother. The edges and surfaces being prepared to this extent, the edges must be finished. To effect this take a piece of flat, soft wood, and apply to its surface a little fine oilstone-powder; be sure that it is quite clean, as it is very annoying to make a deep scratch in the work just as it is finished, perhaps so deep that it will require filing out.

When the work has been finished with the stick and oilstone-powder, use a clean buff, with rotten-stone and oil; and afterwards dry rotten-stone alone should be used, and a bright,

clean and flat finish is obtained. The surfaces will next have all the marks of the file taken out, and be got quite smooth with emery paper.

The best and most ornamental way of finishing such work is by "curling," a method of work for finishing such metals as brass, German silver, etc., which are used for microscopic and philosophical instruments. If well done, it gives a handsome appearance.

The surface must first be carefully finished so as to have no scratches, as these would show through the curling and destroy the effect. Work is not well finished that is simply very bright but full of scratches. High polish and deep scratches must at all risks be avoided, as these are bad signs on the part of the workman.

After the metal has been finished with fine files, emery-paper, water-of-Ayr stone, and finally the finest rotten-stone applied by means of a buff, the curling is produced by means of a stick of charcoal moved in circular sweeps over the surface, which should be kept well moistened with water.

When the surface is finished by this process, next use a piece of slate-pencil brought to a point. This is also used with water, and is moved in small circles, which are not regularly formed, but interlaced in all directions. After the desired effect has been produced, the metal is lacquered. Curling is applied to surfaces of considerable extent, but the effect is not so good as in the case of small surfaces. Large sweeps give a coarse appearance to the work, while a large surface covered with small sweeps has a confused appearance.

The next operation will be lacquering. After the metal has been well wiped and brushed out with whiting, to take off all the grease, it should be heated until it is too hot for the finger to be held upon it. Well wipe again with a clean, dry rag, as where there is any grease the lacquer will not take, and at

those parts it will show a dirty discoloured mark in a short time. Lacquer the edges first. In using the brush, a very light hand is necessary, and use no more lacquer in the brush than you can help, and be sure that lacquer, brush, pot and work are free from dirt and dust. These directions show how the finish seen on the best work is obtained, and there is really little difficulty in it excepting care, and without that good work of any kind cannot be done.

The process of lacquering is only to preserve the bright surface of the metal by coating it with a layer of varnish. The colour of this varnish may be modified to suit the work to which it has to be applied. Lacquer contains either seedlac or shellac, hence its name. Seedlac is the gum in its original form, and when it has been purified and prepared by moulding into thin sheets it is called shellac. This material may be bleached so as to become almost colourless, but in that condition it is not so strong or effective for lacquering purposes. With regard to applying the lacquer it should be understood that much depends on the condition of the work. Perfect cleanliness and a tolerable polish are necessary to insure a successful application of the lacquer. The work must be heated to about the temperature of boiling water before lacquering, and this must be laid on evenly with a camel-hair brush.

With regard to the lacquer itself—yellow is made by mixing turmeric with lac varnish; gold is made with dragon's blood and lac varnish; red contains a larger proportion of dragon's blood. Lacquers suffer a chemical change through heat and light, and for this reason must be kept in a cool place, and away from the light. The brushes used should always be carefully washed out in methylated spirits, and be kept scrupulously clean. There are innumerable receipts for lacquers. A good pale gold lacquer is made by dissolving 5oz. of seed-



lac in half a gallon of methylated spirits, and then adding a small quantity—less than half an ounce—of red sanders. Allow the whole to thoroughly incorporate, then strain for use. To this lacquer may be added red sanders, dragon's blood, or annatto, for imparting richness of colour. To lower the tone of colour, turmeric, gamboge, saffron, Cape aloes, and sandarac are used. The first group reddens, the second yellows the varnish, while a mixture of the two gives an orange tint. Some receipts for lacquers are given at the close of this chapter.

To prepare brass for lacquering, it is either dipped for an instant in commercial nitric acid, then washed in clean water and dried in sawdust, or immersed in a mixture of one part of nitric acid with four of water, then withdrawn, washed in clean water and dried in sawdust. In the first case the brass will be bright, in the latter a dead flat, which is usually relieved by burnishing the prominent parts. Then the goods are dipped for an instant in commercial nitric acid, and well washed in water containing some argol (to preserve the colour till lacquered) and dried in warm sawdust. So prepared, the goods are heated on a hot plate previous to the lacquering.

Properly-lacquered brass work will retain its colour, and resist the action of the atmosphere for a long time; hence the practice of always lacquering work which should retain a good appearance. The process is rather difficult to execute on large surfaces, where the tyro will find the lacquer continually getting a smeary look.

Lacquering is done in two ways, called cold lacquering and hot lacquering. By the former, a little lacquer being taken on a common camel-hair brush is laid carefully and evenly over the work, which is placed in an oven or on a hot stove; the heat from this continued only a minute or two is sufficient to set the lacquer, and the work is finished. Care must be taken not to have the work too hot so as to burn the lacquer, nor yet

too cold, for in this case the lacquer will not be thoroughly set.

By the second method the work is heated first to about the heat of a flat iron as used by the laundress, and the lacquer quickly brushed over it in this state, the work being afterwards subjected to the oven for a minute or not, according to the pleasure and judgment of the lacquerer. If very small the article will require this, because it will have parted with most of its heat to the lacquer; if heavy it will retain sufficient to perfect the process. The greatest difficulty is to know the exact degree of heat, and this knowledge is only attained by experience, so different is the nature of the materials, the quality of the different lacquers, and the effect to be produced. When work is newly lacquered the lacquer is soft, and the work ought to be exposed to a gentle heat for a short time to evaporate the alcohol and harden the lacquer. Small gas cooking stoves are very suitable for this purpose, and it will be found that after newly lacquered work has been baked for a short time, any little unevenness in the laying on the lacquer will be much improved.

The best kind of brush for lacquering is one made in the following manner: Take a piece of wood, a little broader than the work to be lacquered, and make into the shape of the handle of an ordinary white-wash brush. Cut a slit into it lengthwise with a thick saw; take a narrow strip of clean flannel, as long as the wood is broad, and fold it the longest way; then a piece of white nankeen cloth, and fold it round the outside of the flannel, and put them both in the slit cut in the wood, with their folded edge outward, and fasten the cloth to the wood by means of screws passing through the side. Before fastening tight, put a piece of straight wire, about a quarter of an inch thick, through the bow of the folded cloth, and pull the cloth tight against the wire so as to make it

smooth and straight. After the cloth is fastened tight in the wood, the wire is withdrawn, and the brush is specially fitted to be used for lacquer. The woollen cloth holds the lacquer, while the nankeen cloth prevents it flowing too freely, and also presents a smooth surface to the metal that is to be lacquered, while it prevents any particles coming off the woollen cloth on to the lacquered surface. A brush of this kind must not be dipped into a bowl of lacquer, but the lacquer put on to it by means of a common brush. By means of a brush made in this way, large flat surfaces are lacquered very evenly. First coating the work with alcohol, or very thin lacquer, causes the lacquer, when applied, to flow more easily and regular. The brush must be laid on the work very lightly and with a slight curved motion at the beginning of the stroke, so that it may miss the sharp edge of the work, by which a portion of the lacquer would be pressed out and flow irregularly over the edge. The brush must then be drawn straight, and with equal pressure along the surface of the metal, and be lifted off the instant it reaches the other edge. In moderately broad surfaces a brush the full breadth of the work should be used; but in very wide surfaces, and where there are a number of large holes in the work, a brush is difficult to use.

The best method of cleaning old brass-work is by "dipping." The pickle consists of a mixture of one part common nitric acid and one part sulphuric acid in a stone jar; then place ready a pail of fresh water and a box of sawdust. Dip the articles to be cleaned in the acid, which quickly dissolves the metal, leaving a bright untarnished surface. After dipping, the brass is swilled in clean water to arrest the action of the acid. The work must be carried on in the open air, or under a freely-vented flue, as the fumes given off are very baneful to health.

When re-lacquering old brass-work, take the article to pieces

as far as possible, leaving no iron screws or pins in it. If the brass is greasy it must be first dipped in a strong solution of potash and soda in warm water, and then put it into a copper or saucepan containing a lye made of  $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of potash with one gallon of water. Let the article boil in this lye for about twenty minutes, to remove the old lacquer, then take it out and dip it in clean cold water. This cleans the metal so that the acid has the power to act. The operation of dipping in acid and swilling is repeated till the surface of the metal is considered to be thoroughly clean and bright; after the last swilling, the brass-work is dried in hot sawdust, then it is finally lacquered with gold lacquer. The surface as left from the action of the acid, will, when lacquered, present the clean dull surface; the bright parts are got up so by the aid of a steel burnisher, applied before the lacquer, of course.

To prevent the rusting of brass goods, means of protecting the surface from the action of the atmosphere is necessary. Brass, left in damp sand, acquires a beautiful brown colour, which, when polished with a dry brush, remains permanent and requires no cleaning. A green and light coating of verdigris can be imparted to the surface of the brass by means of dilute acids, allowed to dry spontaneously. The antique appearance thus given is more or less permanent. Before bronzing, all the requisite fitting is finished, and the brass annealed, pickled in old or dilute nitric acid, scoured with sand and water, and dried. Bronzing is then performed according to the colour desired; for, although the word means a brown, in commercial language it includes all colours.

Browns of all shades are obtained by immersion in solution of nitrate or perchloride of iron, the strength of the solution determining the depth of the colour. Violets are produced by dipping in a solution of chloride of antimony. Chocolate is obtained by burning on the surface of the brass moist red



oxide of iron, and polishing with a very small quantity of blacklead.

Olive-green results from making the surface black by means of a solution of iron and arsenic in muriatic acid, the details of the process being as follows: Make the articles bright, then dip in nitric acid, which must be thoroughly rinsed off with clean water. Then make the following mixture: Hydrochloric acid, 6lb.; sulphate of iron,  $\frac{1}{2}$ lb.; white arsenic,  $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. All the ingredients to be pure. Let the articles lie in the mixture till black; take out and dry in hot sawdust, polish with blacklead, and lacquer with green lacquer.

A steel-grey colour is deposited on brass from a dilute boiling solution of chloride of arsenic; and a blue by treatment with strong hyposulphite of soda.

Black is much used for optical brasswork, and is obtained by coating the brass with a solution of platinum, or with chloride of gold mixed with nitrate of tin. The Japanese bronze their brass by boiling it in a solution of sulphate of copper, alum and verdigris.

Success in the art of bronzing greatly depends on such circumstances as the temperature of the alloy and of the solution, the proportions of the metals used in forming the alloy, and the quality of the materials. The moment at which to withdraw the goods, and the drying of them, require attention which experience alone can impart.

The following will be found useful lacquers for brass. Of course smaller quantities can be made by keeping the proportions of the ingredients relatively the same: (1) Seedlac, dragon's blood, annatto and gamboge, of each 4oz., saffron 1oz., alcohol 10 oz. (2) Turmeric 1lb., annatto 2oz., shellac and gum juniper, of each 12oz., alcohol 12oz. (3) Seedlac 6oz., dragon's blood 4ogr., amber or copal (ground on porphyry) 2oz., extract of red sandalwood 3ogr., Oriental saffron 36gr.,

pulverised glass 4oz., purest alcohol 40 oz. (4) Seedlac 30z., amber and gamboge of each 20z., extract of red sanders  $\frac{1}{2}$ dr., dragon's blood 1dr., saffron  $\frac{1}{2}$ dr., alcohol 40z. (5) Turmeric 6dr., saffron 15gr., alcohol 1 pint; draw the tincture (*i.e.*, dissolve these two in the alcohol to form a tincture of them) and then add gamboge 6dr., gum sandarach and gum elemi each 4oz., dragon's blood and seedlac of each 1oz. (6) Put into a pint of alcohol 1oz. of turmeric powder, 2dr. of annatto, and 2dr. of saffron: agitate daily for a week, and filter into a clean bottle. Now add 3oz. of clean seedlac, and agitate the bottle every day for a fortnight. (7)  $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. of gamboge, 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. of aloes, 8oz. fine shellac, 1 gallon alcohol.

## CHAPTER V.

### *SOLDERS AND SOLDERING.*

**T**HE term *soldering* is generally applied when fusible alloys of lead and tin are employed for uniting metals. When hard metals, which melt only above a red heat, such as copper, brass, or silver, are used, the term *brazing* is sometimes used.

Hard soldering is the art of soldering or uniting two metals or two pieces of the same metal together by means of a solder that is almost as hard and infusible as the metals to be united. In some cases the metals to be united are heated, and their surface united without solder by fluxing the surfaces of the metals. This process is then termed burning together. Some of the hard soldering processes are often termed brazing. Both brazing and hard soldering is usually done in the open fire on the brazier's hearth. A soldered joint is more perfect and more tenacious as the point of fusion of the solder rises. Thus tin, which greatly increases the fusibility of its alloys, should not be used for solders, excepting when a very easy running solder is wanted. Solders made with tin are not so malleable and tenacious as those prepared without it.

The Egyptians soldered with lead as long ago as B.C. 1490, the time of Moses. Pliny refers to the art, and says it requires the addition of tin to use as a solder. The tin came mainly from the Cassiterides (Cornwall).

Plumbers use solder composed of two parts of lead and one of tin, and a very slight variation in these quantities makes

a very considerable difference in the working, and also in the soundness of the joint. If a slight excess over the above proportion of lead is used, the solder is more difficult to work, and the joint, when made, frequently leaks, the water passing through the small cellules or pores in the metal, and the joint is then said to "sweat." If an excess of tin is used, the solder melts too easily, and considerable difficulty is found in keeping it on the joint, and it cools so suddenly that the joints always look rough and ragged at the ends. They sometimes require trimming up to make them look better; this solder also keeps running, and then congealing, in such a way as to be difficult to keep it at a workable heat. Small portions of the metal also keep sticking to the cloth used for moulding, technically called wiping, the joint or seam, as the case may be. Plumbers' solder, with the above proportions, on being melted, and then allowed to cool, will generally exhibit several bright spots on its surface, due to the two metals partly separating. These bright spots are generally a very sure guide as to the proper quantities of each metal used. If none are seen, it is too coarse; and if too many are seen, it contains too much tin and is said to be too fine. If the spots are small, the metal may not be good, although it may have beyond its proper quantity of tin; but if the spots are about the size of a threepenny-piece the solder very rarely fails to work well.

In uniting tin, copper, brass, &c., with any of the soft solders, a copper soldering-bit is generally used. This tool and the manner of using it are well known. In many cases the work may be done more neatly without the soldering bit, by filing or turning the joints so that they fit closely, moistening them with the soldering fluid described hereafter, placing a piece of smooth tin foil between them, tying them together with binding-wire, and heating the whole in a lamp or fire till



the tin-foil melts. Pieces of brass are often joined in this way, so that the joints are invisible. With good soft solder, almost all work may be done over a spirit-lamp, or even a candle, without the use of a soldering-bit.

Advantage may be taken of the varying degrees of fusibility of solders to make several joints in the same piece of work. Thus, if the first joint has been made with fine tinner's solder, there would be no danger of melting it in making a joint near it with bismuth solder. The fusibility of soft solder is increased by adding bismuth to the composition. An alloy of lead 4 parts, tin 4 parts, and bismuth 1 part, is easily melted; but this alloy may itself be soldered with an alloy of lead 2 parts, bismuth 2 parts, and tin 1 part. By adding mercury a still more fusible solder can be made. Equal parts of lead, bismuth and mercury, with two parts of tin, will make a composition which melts at 122° Fahr.; or an alloy of tin 5 parts, lead 3 parts, and bismuth 3 parts, will melt in boiling water. In melting these solders, melt the least fusible metal first in an iron ladle, then add the others in accordance with their infusibility.

It is convenient—and, in fact, often necessary—to have solders which will melt at different degrees of temperature, to avoid the risk of spoiling the work by subjecting it to too great a heat, when, with a little easy-flowing solder there would be no danger. The following table gives proportions, &c., and it will be found very convenient to have some of the sorts on hand ready for use.

Tin 1	...	...	Lead 25	...	Melts at 580° F.
„ 1	...	...	„ 10	...	„ 540°
„ 1	...	...	„ 5	...	„ 510°
„ 1	...	...	„ 3	...	„ 480°
„ 1	...	...	„ 2	...	„ 440°
„ 1	...	...	„ 1	...	„ 370°

Tin	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	...	...	Lead	1 ...	Melts at	335° F.
"	2	...	...	"	1 ...	"	340°
"	3	...	...	"	1 ...	"	355°
"	4	...	...	"	1 ...	"	365°
"	5	...	...	"	1 ...	"	375°
"	6	...	...	"	1 ...	"	380°
"	4	...	Bismuth	1	"	4 ...	320°
"	3	...	"	1	"	3 ...	310°
"	2	...	"	1	"	2 ...	290°
"	1	...	"	1	"	1 ...	255°
"	1	...	"	2	"	2 ...	235°
"	5	...	"	3	"	3 ...	200°

Either can be melted in an iron ladle, and cast in strips for convenience in applying. Any of them will flow readily with the ordinary fluid. To cast strips of solder, pour the molten metal on a flat surface of stone or metal, drawing the ladle along the while, to leave a thread of metal of the desired substance.

The following simple mode of making solder wire, which is very handy for small work, will be found useful: Take a sheet of stiff writing or drawing paper and roll it in a conical form, rather obtuse; make a ring of stiff wire, to hold it in, attaching a suitable handle to the ring. The point of the cone must be cut off to leave an orifice of the size required. When filled with molten solder it should be held above a pail of cold water, and the stream of solder flowing from the cone will congeal as it runs and form the wire. If held a little higher, so that the streams of solder breaks into drops before striking the water, it will form handy, elongated "tears" of metal; but, by holding it still higher, each drop forms a thin concave cup or shell, and, as each of these forms have their own peculiar uses in various purposes, many will find this hint very useful.

In using ordinary tinner's solder for uniting surfaces that are already tinned—such as tinned iron plate and tinned copper—resin is the best and cheapest flux, but when surfaces of iron, brass, or copper, that have not been tinned are to be joined by soft solder, soldering fluid is by far the most convenient. Resin possesses this important advantage over soldering fluid, that it does not induce subsequent corrosion of the article to which it is applied. When acid fluxes have been applied to anything that is liable to rust, it is necessary to see that they are thoroughly washed off with clean warm water, and the articles carefully and thoroughly dried. Oil and powdered resin mixed together make a good flux for tinned articles. The mixture can be applied with a small brush or a swab, tied to the end of a stick.

For soft solders the best flux is a soldering fluid, which may be prepared by saturating hydrochloric acid (spirit of salt) with zinc. The addition of a little sal-ammoniac improves it. A solution of phosphoric acid in alcohol makes, it is said, an excellent soldering fluid, which has some advantages over chloride of zinc. To prepare the latter put  $\frac{1}{2}$  pint of muriatic acid (also called spirits of salts and hydrochloric acid) into a glass, and add small pieces of clean zinc, which will be dissolved by the acid. Let it stand for several hours, till the acid has ceased to act; then add a small quantity of water—say a wineglass full—when ebullition will recommence. Let it stand undisturbed for a few hours, and again add a small quantity of water. Continue this until the quantity of water added equals that of the acid ( $\frac{1}{2}$  pint). When all action has ceased, add 1oz. of sal-ammoniac; let it stand 12 hours, then decant the clear liquid into a bottle, which should be kept well fastened when not in use. Throw away the sediment.

Soft solders do not make malleable joints. To join brass,

copper, or iron, so as to have the joint very strong and malleable, hard solder must be used. For this purpose equal parts of silver and brass will be found excellent, though for iron, copper, or very infusible brass, use silver coin rolled out thin, which may be done by any silversmith or dentist ; this makes decidedly the toughest of all joints, and as a little silver goes a long way it is not very expensive.

When soldering work of copper, iron, brass, etc., the solder generally used is a fusible brass, and the work to be soldered is prepared by filing or scraping perfectly clean the edges or parts to be united. The joints are then put into proper position and bound securely together with binding-wire or clamps ; the granulated spelter solder and powdered borax are mixed in a cup with a very little water and spread with a strip of sheet metal or a small spoon along the joint to be united. The work is then placed upon a clear fire and heated gradually, to evaporate the water used with the solder and borax and also to drive off the water contained in the crystallised borax, which causes it to boil up with a frothy appearance. If the work is heated hastily the boiling of the borax may displace the solder, and for this reason it is better to roast the borax before mixing with the solder. When the borax ceases to boil, the heat is then increased, and when the metal becomes a faint red, the borax fuses quietly like glass ; and shortly after, as the heat of the metal is increased to a bright red, the solder also fuses, which is indicated by a small blue flame, from the burning of the zinc. Just at this time the work should be jarred slightly by being tapped lightly with the poker or hammer, to put the solder in vibration and cause it to run into the joint. For some work there is no necessity to tap it, for the solder is absorbed into the joint without.

Silver soldering, as applied to silversmith's work, requires great care and practice to perform neatly and properly. The



solder should in every way be well suited to the particular metal to which it is to be applied, and should possess a powerful chemical affinity to it; if this is not the case, strong, clean and invisible connections cannot be affected, and that is partly the cause of roughness in goods, and not, as may more frequently be supposed, from the want of skill on the part of the workman. The best connections are made when the metal and solder agree as nearly as possible in uniformity as regards fusibility, hardness and malleability.

The ordinary blowpipe is a tapering tube about eight inches long and one third of an inch diameter at the largest end. The small end is perforated with a pin hole. The uses of the blowpipe are various, but it is principally used in hardening and tempering, and in soldering.

For soldering small articles of jewellery, the common blowpipe, such as may be bought at any tool shop for about sixpence, is used. The solder is sold at dealers' in jewellers' requisites, ready for use. Of solder for silver goods, several sorts are used, in different qualities to suit different work. Only specify the purpose for which it is intended to be used when buying, and the correct quality will be given. Gold solder, to be used for gold jewellery, is subject to the same conditions. Gold solders are made from gold of the quality of the article, say 18 or 16 carats, to which is added  $\frac{1}{12}$  of silver and  $\frac{1}{24}$  of copper; or a larger proportion of silver and copper for ware of inferior fineness.

The quality of the solder is always a trifle less than the metal on which it is to be used. This is necessary, in order that the solder may melt before the article does. The flux used with both gold and silver solders is borax. Working jewellers generally rub a lump of borax on a piece of slate with a few drops of water, just as water colours are ground, to a cream-like consistency. The solder is scraped clean, to re-

move all trace of oxide, cut into little pieces and mixed with the borax. The actual process of soldering will be modified to suit the peculiarities of the article which is to be treated. Usually the edges to be soldered are cleaned, wetted with the borax fluid, and placed closely in contact. If possible the article is bound tightly together with binding-wire. This is fine wire of soft iron, made specially for such purposes. A piece of pumice-stone or charcoal is used to rest the work on whilst it is being heated. It is laid on this, with the joint uppermost; a few pieces of solder and a little borax are placed along the joint, and the article is ready for being heated. So long as there is sufficient for the purpose, the less solder and borax used the better. Gas is generally used for heating with, but failing that, a spirit lamp will answer for all small work. A small lamp suited for the purpose, to burn methylated spirit, can be bought for a shilling. With the blowpipe direct a jet of flame along the joint, at the same time heating the entire article till the solder runs, then the soldering is accomplished.

Solders made from silver and copper only are, as a rule, too infusible to be applied to the general run of silver goods. Solders are manufactured of all degrees of hardness. Hardest: Four parts of fine silver and one of copper; or three parts of sterling silver and one of brass wire. Soft: Two parts of fine silver and one of brass wire. Three-quarters of a part of arsenic is sometimes added at the close of the operation to make the solder whiter and more fusible; but its poisonous vapours render its use injudicious. In applying solder, of whatever composition, it is of the utmost importance that the edges, or parts to be united, should be chemically clean; and for the purpose of protecting these parts from the action of the air and oxidation during the soldering process they are covered with a flux, always borax, which not only effects the

objects just pointed out, but greatly facilitates the flow of the solder to the required places. Silver may be soldered with silver of a lower quality, but easy-running solder may be made of 13 dwt. fine silver, 6 dwt. of brass; the composition of brass being so uncertain, it is best to fuse zinc and copper with the silver, and the following proportions make a very easy-running solder: 12 dwt. fine silver, 6 dwt. pure copper, 1 dwt. zinc. Brass sometimes contains lead, which burns away in soldering, and must be carefully guarded against. Solder for filigree work is prepared by reducing easy-flowing solder filings and mixing it with burnt borax powdered fine. In this state it is sprinkled over the work to be soldered, or the parts to be soldered are painted with wet borax, and the solder filings are sifted on and adhere to the borax. The flux which adheres to the work after soldering is removed by boiling the articles in a pickle of sulphuric acid and water, 1 part to 30.

Steel or heavy iron may be united in the same way at a very low heat. For soldering iron, steel and other light coloured metals, and also brass work that requires to be very neatly done, the silver solder is generally used on account of its superior fusibility and combining so well with nearly all metals, without gnawing or eating away the sharp edges of the joints. Silver solder is used a great deal in the arts, and from the sparing or careful way in which it is used most work requires but little or no finish after soldering; so that the silver solder, although expensive, is in reality the cheapest solder in the end. For silver soldering the solder is rolled into thin sheets and then cut into narrow strips with shears. The joints or edges to be united are first coated with pulverised borax, which has been previously heated or boiled to drive off the water of crystallisation. The small strips of solder are then placed with forceps upon the edges or joints to be united, and the work is then heated upon the brazier's hearth. The process

of silver soldering upon the larger scale is essentially the same as the operation of brazing.

For hard soldering small work, such as drawing instruments, jewellery, buttons, etc., the blowpipe is almost exclusively used, and the solder used is of the finest or best quality, such as gold or silver solder, which is always drawn into thin sheets of very fine wire, and it is sometimes pulverised or granulated by filing; but solder should not be pulverised very fine; a greater degree of heat is always required to fuse a minute particle of metal than is required to fuse a large piece.

In soldering jewellery, the borax or other flux is usually applied in solution with a small camel's-hair brush. The solder is rolled into very thin sheets, and then clipped into minute particles of any desired shape or size, which is so delicately applied to the work that it is not necessary to file or scrape off any portion of it, none being in excess. The borax or other flux used in the operation is removed by rubbing the work with a rag that has been moistened with water or diluted acids.

To obtain hard solders of uniform composition they are generally granulated by pouring them into water through a wet broom. Sometimes they are cast in solid ingots and reduced to powder by filing. Silver solders for jewellers are generally rolled into thin plates, and sometimes the soft solders, especially those that are very fusible, are rolled into sheets and cut into narrow strips, which are very convenient for small work that is to be heated by a lamp.

In order to do good work it is necessary to apply the heat as uniformly as possible, so as to have the solder melt uniformly. This is done by moving the work about in the fire. As soon as the work has been properly heated and the solder has fused, the work should be removed from the fire, and after the solder has set it may be cooled in water without injury. Tubes to be soldered are generally secured by binding



wire, twisted together around the tube with pliers. All tubes that are soldered upon the open fire are soldered from within, for if they were soldered from the outside the heat would have to be transmitted across the tube with greater risk of melting the lower part of the tube, the air in the tube being a bad conductor of heat. In soldering long tubes the work rests upon the flat plate of the brazier's hearth, and portions equal to the length of the fire are soldered in succession.

The best solder for platinum is fine gold. The joint is not only very infusible, but it is not easily acted upon by common agents. For German silver joints, an excellent solder is composed of equal parts of silver, brass and zinc. The proper flux is borax.

Solders.					Gold.	Silver.	Copper.	Tin.	Zinc.	Lead.	Bismuth.	Brass	Melting-point.
Pewterer's	...	...	...	...	...			2		1	2		360°
Pewterer's, soft	...	...	...	...	...			3		4	1		
"	...	...	...	...	...			2		1			
Tinman's	...	...	...	...	...			1		1			393
Coarse	...	...	...	...	...			1		3			500
Plumber's	...	...	...	...	...			1		2			475
Hard Spelter	...	...	...	...	...		4		3				1,869
Gold*	...	...	...	...	6	1	2						
For Brazing Steel	...	...	...	...		19	1					2	
Hardest Silver	...	...	...	...		4	1						
Hard Silver	...	...	...	...			3					1	
Soft Silver	...	...	...	...			2					1	
For Aluminium	...	...	...	...			2	2	1	2			

In preparing solders, whether hard or soft, great care is requisite to avoid two faults—a want of uniformity in the melted mass, and a change in the proportions of the constituents by the loss of volatile or oxidable ingredients. Thus,

\* Various proportions are employed, according to the fineness of the article, so as not to risk the test of assay.

where copper, silver and similar metals are to be mixed with tin, zinc, etc., it is necessary to melt the more infusible metal first. When copper and zinc are heated together, a large portion of the zinc passes off in fumes. In preparing soft solders the material should be melted under tallow to prevent waste by oxidation; and in melting hard solders the same object is accomplished by covering them with a thick layer of powdered charcoal.

The common iron tubes for gas-pipes are soldered or welded from the outside. This is done by heating the tube in a long air furnace, completely surrounded by hot air, by which means the tube is heated more uniformly than in the open fire. After the tubes have been heated to the welding heat they are then taken out of the furnace and drawn through clamps or tongs to unite the edges, and are then run through grooved rollers two or three times, and the process is complete. The soldering or welding of iron tubes requires much less precaution in respect of the heat than some of the other metals or alloys, for there is little or no risk in fusing it. In soldering light iron-work, such as locks, hinges, etc., the work is usually covered with a thin coating of loam to prevent the iron from being scaled off by the heat. Sheet iron may be soldered at a cherry-red heat, by using iron filings and pulverised borax as a solder and flux. The solder and flux are laid between the irons to be soldered, and the whole is bound together with binding wire and heated to a red heat and taken from the fire and laid upon the anvil, and the two irons are united by a stroke upon the set hammer.

Hard solders are usually reduced to powder, either by granulation or filing, and then spread along the joints after being mixed with borax, which has been fused and powdered. It is not necessary that the grains of solder should be placed *between* the pieces to be joined, as with the aid of the borax

they will "sweat" into the joint as soon as fusion takes place. The same is true of soft solder applied with a soldering fluid. One of the essential requisites of success, however, is that the surfaces be clean, bright, and free from all rust.

Soldering without heat, commonly called cold soldering, is a process not only possible but common, and after the first preparation is exceedingly simple. The process given has many uses for soldering all articles which cannot be exposed to heat, and for soldering parts together which cannot be got at with either a copper bit or a blowpipe flame.

The process of cold soldering can be extended even to soldering two faces of *dirty cast iron* together. It may be done on blocks of any size without the slightest assistance so far as heating is concerned, by the following process.

Although the first preparation is tedious a large quantity of the materials can be made at once, and the actual soldering process is simple and quick. Flux: 1 part metallic sodium to 50 or 60 parts mercury. This must be kept in a stoppered bottle closed from the air. It has the property of amalgamating (equivalent to tinning by heat) any metallic surface, cast iron included.

Metallic sodium alloys with mercury by being shaken up in a bottle with it. If this is too much trouble the sodium amalgam can be bought ready made from any chemist or dealer in reagents.

Solder: make a weak solution of sulphate of copper about 1 oz. to 1 quart of water. Precipitate the copper by rods of zinc; wash the precipitate 2 or 3 times with hot water; drain the water off, and add for every 3 ounces of precipitate 6 or 7 ounces of mercury; add also a little sulphuric acid to assist the combination of the two metals. The finely-divided copper combines with the mercury, and they form a paste which sets intensely hard in a few hours, and whilst soft this paste should

be made into small pellets, which harden and have the property of softening by heat and again hardening in a few hours.

When wanted for use heat one or more of the pellets until the mercury oozes out from the surface in small beads, shake or wipe these off, and rub the pellet into a soft paste in a small pestle and mortar, or by any other convenient means, until it is as smooth and soft as painters' white lead. This when put on the surface amalgamated by the sodium and mercury adheres firmly and sets perfectly hard in about three hours. The joint can be parted if necessary, either by a hammer and cold chisel or by a heat about sufficient to melt plumber's solder.

If expense is no object there is no difficulty in making a much stronger solder, which will set hard in 15 minutes. For this quick setting solder to replace the copper and mercury use 8 silver, 10 tin, 1 bismuth, 1 platinum, melted together, cast into an ingot, and reduced to fine filings. When wanted mix about 3 parts filings and 1 mercury in a small mortar until it becomes a smooth paste. This sets in about 15 minutes, and cannot be made workable again by heat; it must be mixed just as required. The omission of the platinum reduces the strength of the solder and lengthens the time required to harden to about 1 hour. The omission of bismuth makes a more granular mass, which is better for filling up crevices. With bismuth it is as smooth and plastic as potter's clay.



## CHAPTER VI.

### *FILES AND FILING.*

**F**ILES are of very ancient origin, and these tools are mentioned in the Book of Samuel. They are made in endless variety for special purposes, but there are a few generally accepted peculiarities by which files can be classified. These are *length*—which is measured from the point to the heel exclusive of the tang; *kind*—which really indicates the shape of the longitudinal and sectional forms; *cut*—which varies not only in coarseness but in kind.

The five grades most in use are divided as follows:—Rough, bastard, second cut, smooth, and dead smooth. The teeth of ordinary files called double cut are made by two separate series of grooves cut on the file, which form a diamond-shaped tooth. The first cut which is put on the file is known as the “over cut,” and the second as the “up cut.” For saw files, only the “over cut” is used, the tooth being a sharp ridge of metal extending at an angle across the face of the file; these are called single cut. The teeth are not intersected by any other stroke of the cutting chisel. Single cut files have two grades, bastard and second cut. The other tooth which is in use is that applied to horse rasps, wood rasps, cabinet rasps, and shoe rasps. This tooth is raised to a conical form by the use of a punch. On horse rasps it is too large to designate by any grade of cut. On wood and cabinet rasps it is graded as bastard, smooth, and sometimes second cut. As a matter of convenience, the number of teeth is given by counting only

one of the cuts of the file, and this is the "over cut," or first cut.

Gradation of coarseness depends on the length of the file: thus bastard files of the undermentioned lengths have the number of teeth shown per running inch.

4 in.	8 in.	12 in.	16 in.	long.
76	56	48	44	teeth per inch.

The teeth of files may be single cut, double cut, or rasp cut, each of which is quite distinct.

The length of a file gives no clue to any other dimensions, and the file may be of any section or substance.

The kind is a term having technical significance as flat, square, round, etc.; some are named from their transverse section, some from the purpose for which they are intended. Some of the files generally used are described below.

*Square*.—A double cut file, made up of the five grades of cut previously mentioned, namely, rough, bastard, second cut, smooth and dead smooth.

It is of equal width and thickness for about two-thirds its length; from there to the end it is gradually drawn to a point, its square shape being retained. Frequently the point or end is left of the same thickness as the tang end. It is then called "parallel square."

*Pillar*.—A file in cut and grade of cut the same as "flat." In other respects the same as a "hand," with two exceptions. It is only from  $\frac{5}{8}$  to  $\frac{3}{4}$  the width, and in proportion to its width is of greater diameter than a "hand."

*Cotter or Pivot*.—A file in cut and grade of cut the same as a "flat." In shape a very narrow "pillar."

*Hand*.—A file in cut and grade of cut the same as "flat." It is of the same width at the point or end as at the shank or tang end. It is gradually drawn down in thickness from about two-thirds its length to the end, leaving it at the end about

one-half its original thickness. Sometimes it is drawn very slightly from the centre to the tang as regards its thickness. One edge of the file is left uncut, and given the name of "safe edge." These files are sometimes made with two safe edges.

*Flat.*—A file in cut and grade of cut the same as "square." The double cut applies to the sides of the file, the edges being single cut; on special orders the file is made with single cut sides and of the five above-mentioned grades. In shape, this file is, as a rule, of parallel sides and thickness for two-thirds its length, and from that distance to the end is drawn to a blunt point, in a gradual decreasing width and thickness.

*Warding File.*—A file in cut and grade of cut the same as "flat." It is seldom made over eight inches in length. In appearance very much like a flat file—differing in three ways. It is forged more to a point than a "flat," and compared with the same length of "flat" file, is not so thick but has more width.

*Equaling.*—A file in cut and grade of cut the same as "flat." In every other respect, with one exception, the same as "hand." It is not only of parallel width, but of parallel thickness.

*Joint File.*—In shape a thin "equaling." It is cut on the edges only, and is sometimes made with round and sometimes with square edges, according to the wishes of the buyer. It is known also as a "drill" file. As regards thickness it can be ordered by numbers, according to Stubbs's metal gauge.

*Round.*—A file in grade of cut the same as "flat," the cut being made up or comprising a number of rows of single cuts extending from shank to point, the rows slightly intersecting. It is gradually drawn to a point, from about two-thirds its length to the end. Sometimes the file is left the same thick-

ness at the point or end as at the tang end ; it is then called "parallel round."

*Half Round.*—A file in grade of cut the same as "flat." It is cut on the flat side the same as a "flat" file, or double cut. On the half round side is a series of rows of single cuts from shank to point, completely covering it. Some of the rows intersect at different angles ; where this occurs it gives the file the appearance of being double cut. In shape, of the same width as the various sizes of "flat" files ; and drawn to a point in the same way as a "flat" file, only differing from a "flat" in being between a half round and half oval.

*Crossing.*—A file graded the first as flat. Oval in shape, with two sharp edges, being forged and drawn gradually, from about two-thirds its length to the point. It is cut the same as the back or half round side of the "half round" file.

*Triangular, generally miscalled Three Square.*—A file in cut and grade of cut the same as "flat." It is in dimensions of triangular shape, giving the file three sharp corners, which vary in sharpness according to grade of cut. It is of uniform dimensions for about two-thirds its length, and is drawn gradually to a point from that distance to the end. There are also "parallel triangular" files, these files being the same thickness at the point as at the tang end.

*Saw.*—A single cut file, generally of two grades ; bastard and second cut, and sometimes a smooth cut. It is flat in shape, slightly drawn at the point, both in thickness and in width, and though of about the same width as a flat file is not so thick. It is generally cut with one round and one square edge, very often with both edges square, and sometimes with both round edges and with one safe edge. By machinists it is often called a "float file."

*Taper Saw.*—A file sold largely under the following heads : Taper saw, single cut, slim taper saw single cut, band taper



saw single cut, and taper saw double cut. As a rule a file of single cut graded as second cut. It is often cut in all its shapes with a double cut graded as second cut. It is triangular in shape, being forged to a point the same as a "triangular."

*Taper Saw Single Cut.*—A file graded as "second cut," triangular in shape, being cut on the three sides, also cut on three edges. As a rule, cut within a short distance of the end.

*Slim Taper Saw Single Cut.*—The same in every particular as the "taper saw," only made from steel two-thirds as heavy.

*Band Taper Saw Single Cut.*—Is the same as "taper saw" in shape; the sides are cut the same as "taper saw." Its edges are ground, rounding and cut with two rows of teeth to each edge.

*Double Cut Taper Saw.*—A file in shape the same as "taper saw," the edges being cut, and the sides receiving a double cut "second cut" instead of single cut.

*Wood Rasps.*—In shape, both flat, round, and half round, and corresponding in this particular to the "flat," "round" and "half round" files. The tooth is conical, being raised from the surface of the rasp with a punch, raising a tooth about equal to the space it removes from the surface. As regards grade of cut, is generally known as "bastard."

*Cabinet Rasps.*—In every respect but two the same as a "wood rasp." Instead of being "half round" it is scant "half hollow," and in grade of tooth it is a "smooth," sometimes a "second cut."

*Cabinet File.*—In shape like a cabinet rasp. On flat side it is double cut, and grade of "bastard." On the oval side it is the same grade of cut or bastard half round.

Small single cut files or "floats" of various shapes not hardened may be met with at some of the dealers in watchmaker's tools, which are useful in finishing small articles in

hard wood, ivory, and also in gold and silver; they are used sometimes by jewellers for finishing, on account of their leaving a smooth surface behind them instead of a rough one, as a double cut file does.

In the manufacture of files the pieces of steel, or the blanks intended for files, are forged from bars of steel that have been either tilted or rolled as nearly as possible to the sections required, so as to leave but little to be done at the forge; the blanks are afterwards annealed with great caution, so that in neither of the processes the temperature known as blood-red heat may be exceeded. The surfaces of the blanks are now rendered accurate in form and quite clean in surface either by filing or grinding. For smaller files the blanks are mostly filed into shape as the more exact method; for the larger, the blanks are more commonly ground on large grindstones as the most expeditious method; in some cases the blanks are planed in the planing machine, for those called "dead-parallel files." The blank, before being cut, is slightly greased, that the chisel may slip freely over it. The file cutter is seated before a square stake or anvil, and places the blank straight before him, with the tang towards his person; the ends of the blank are fixed down by two leather straps or loops, one of which is held fast by each foot.

The chisels commonly used in cutting files vary considerably. The largest is a chisel for large rough files; the length is about 3in., the width about  $2\frac{1}{2}$ in., and the angle of the edge about  $50^{\circ}$ ; the edge is perfectly straight, but the one bevel is a little more inclined than the other, and the keenness of the edge is rounded off, the object being to indent rather than cut the steel; this chisel requires a hammer of about 7 or 8 pounds weight. The smallest is the chisel used for small superfine files; its length is 2in., the width  $\frac{1}{2}$ in.; it is very thin, and sharpened at about the angle of  $35^{\circ}$ ; the edge is

also rounded, but in a smaller degree; it is used with a hammer weighing only 1 or 2 ounces; as will be seen, the weight of the blow mainly determines the distance between the teeth. Other chisels are made of intermediate proportions, but the width of the edge always exceeds that of the file to be cut.

The first cut is made at the point of the file; the chisel is held in the left hand, at a horizontal angle of about  $55^{\circ}$  with the central line of the file, and with a vertical inclination of about  $12^{\circ}$  to  $4^{\circ}$  from the perpendicular. The following are the usual angles for the vertical inclination of the chisels, namely: For rough rasps,  $15^{\circ}$  beyond the perpendicular; rough files,  $12^{\circ}$ ; bastard files,  $10^{\circ}$ ; second cut files,  $5^{\circ}$ ; and dead smooth cut files,  $4^{\circ}$ .

The blow of the hammer upon the chisel causes the latter to indent and slightly to drive forward the steel, thereby throwing up a trifling ridge or burr; the chisel is immediately replaced on the blank, and slid from the operator until it encounters the ridge previously thrown up, which arrests the chisel or prevents it from slipping further back, and thereby determines the succeeding position of the chisel. The chisel having been placed in its second position, is again struck with the hammer, which is made to give the blows as nearly as possible of uniform strength, and the process is repeated with considerable rapidity and regularity, 60 to 80 cuts being made in one minute, until the entire length of the file has been cut with inclined parallel and equidistant ridges, which are collectively denominated the "first course." So far as this one face is concerned, if intended to be single-cut, the file would be then ready for hardening.

The teeth of some single cut files are much less inclined than  $55^{\circ}$ ; those of floats are in general at right angles across the face. Most files, however, are double cut, and have two

series of courses of chisel cuts, and for these the surface of the file is now smoothed by passing a smooth file once or twice along the face of the teeth, to remove only so much of the roughness as would obstruct the chisel from sliding along the face in receiving its successive positions, and the file is again greased.

The second course of teeth is now cut, the chisel being inclined vertically as before, or at about  $12^{\circ}$ , but horizontally about  $5^{\circ}$  to  $10^{\circ}$  from the rectangle. The blows are now given a little less strongly, so as barely to penetrate to the bottom of the first cuts, and consequently the second course of cuts is somewhat finer than the first. The two series of courses cover the surface of the file with teeth which are inclined toward the point of the file, and when highly magnified they much resemble in character the points of cutting tools generally. If the file is flat and to be cut on two faces, it is now turned over, but to protect the teeth from the hard face of the anvil a thin plate of pewter is interposed. Triangular and other files require blocks of lead having grooves of the appropriate sections to support the blanks, so that the surface to be cut may be placed horizontally. Taper files have the teeth somewhat finer toward the point, to avoid the risk of the blank being weakened or broken whilst being cut, which might occur if much force were used in cutting the teeth at the point of the file as in those at its central and stronger part.

Eight courses of cuts are required to complete a double cut rectangular file that is cut on all faces, but eight, ten, or even more courses are required in cutting only the one rounded face of a half round file. There are various objections to employing chisels with concave edges, and in cutting round and half round files, the ordinary straight chisel is used and applied with its edge as a tangent to the curve. It will be found that in a smooth, half round file 1 in. in width, about 20 courses



are required for the convex side, whilst two courses alone serve for the flat side. In some of the double cut, gullet-tooth saw-files, as many as 23 courses are sometimes used for the convex face, and but two for the flat. The same difficulty occurs in a round file, and the surfaces of curvilinear files do not therefore present, under ordinary circumstances, the same uniformity as those of flat files. Hollowed files are rarely used in the arts, and, when required, it usually becomes imperative to employ a round-edged chisel, and to cut the file with a single course of teeth.

The teeth of rasps are cut with a punch, which, for a fine cabinet rasp, is about  $3\frac{1}{2}$  in. long and square at its widest part. Viewed in front, the two sides of the point meet at an angle of about  $60^{\circ}$ ; viewed edgewise, the edge forms an angle of about  $50^{\circ}$ , the one face being only a little inclined to the body of the tool. In cutting rasps, the punch is sloped rather more from the operator than the chisel in cutting files, but the distance between the teeth of the rasp cannot be determined, as in the file, by placing the punch in contact with the burr of the tooth previously made. By dint of habit, the workman moves—or, technically, hops—the punch the required distance; to facilitate this movement he places a piece of woollen cloth under his left hand, which prevents his hand from coming immediately in contact with the anvil. The teeth of rasps are cut in rather an arbitrary manner, and to suit the custom rather than the necessities of the workmen who use them. Thus the lines of teeth in cabinet rasps, wood rasps, and farriers' rasps are cut in lines sloping from the left down to the right-hand side; the teeth of rasps for boot and shoemakers and saddle-tree-makers are cut in circular lines, or crescent form. These directions are quite immaterial, but it is important that every succeeding tooth should cross its predecessor, or be intermediate to the two before it, as, if the teeth followed one another

in right lines, they would produce furrows in the work, and not comparatively smooth surfaces.

In cutting files and rasps, they always become more or less bent, and there would be danger of breaking them if they were set straight while cold; they are consequently straightened while they are at the red heat. Previously to their being hardened the files are drawn through beer grounds, yeast, or other sticky matter, and then through common salt mixed with cow's hoof, previously roasted and pounded, which serves as a defence to protect the delicate teeth of the file from the direct action of the fire. The compound likewise serves as an index to the temperature, as on the fusion of the salt the hardening heat is obtained; the defence also lessens the disposition of the files to crack on being immersed in the water.

The file, after being smeared over as above, is gradually heated to a dull red, and then straightened with a leaden hammer on two small blocks, also of lead; the temperature of the file is afterwards increased until the salt on its surface just fuses, when the file is immediately dipped in water. The file is immersed quickly or slowly, vertically or obliquely, according to its form, that mode being adopted for each variety of file which is considered best calculated to keep it straight. It is well known that, from the unsymmetrical section of the half round file, it is disposed on being immersed to become hollow or bowed on the convex side, and this tendency is compensated by curving the file while soft in a nearly equal degree in the reverse direction. It nevertheless commonly happens that, with every precaution, the file becomes more or less bent in hardening, and, if so, it is straightened by pressure, either before it is quite cold, or else after it has been partially reheated. The pressure is variously applied, sometimes by passing one end of the file under a hook, supporting the centre on a prop of lead, and bearing down the

opposite end of the file, at other times by using a support at each end and by applying pressure in the middle by means of a lever, the end of which is hooked in the bench. Large files are always straightened before they are quite cooled, after the hardening, and while the central part retains a considerable degree of heat. When straightened, the file is cooled in oil, which saves the teeth from becoming rusty.

The tangs are now softened to prevent their fracture. This is done either by grasping the tang in a pair of heated tongs, or by means of a bath of lead contained in an iron vessel, with a perforated cover, through the holes in which the tangs are immersed in the melted lead, which is heated to the proper degree. The tang is afterwards cooled in oil, and when the file has been wiped and the teeth brushed clean, it is considered fit for use. The superiority of the file will be found to depend on four points—the primary excellence of the steel, the proper forging and annealing without excess of heat, the correct formation of the teeth, and the success of the hardening.

To choose a good file, hold it between your eye and the light, point towards you, and you can see the cutting edges of every tooth. See if they are all clean, smooth and sharp. If notched, cracked, uneven and irregular, they indicate a poor file. Look all over for fire-cracks, hold up to the light as before, but reverse the ends and see if the file is all one colour. If it shows a chequered appearance, it is uneven in temper, hard and soft in spots. Strike the file with some hard substance. If there are any flaws in it, the ring of the steel will betray them.

Filing is an operation that mechanics frequently require to practise. Whenever the use of the file can be avoided, by the use of the lathe, the milling machine, or the planer, it is certainly desirable. Considerable skill is required to smooth surfaces of large area by means of files alone, more especially when these surfaces are required to be accurately flat. The

method of preparing surface plates, as detailed by Sir Joseph Whitworth, is most valuable information to anyone desirous of excelling in this particular branch of practical handicraft. In engineering works, filing is superseded by the planing and shaping machines for almost all work of large size. The speed and accuracy of the planing machine cannot be approached by the file when there is a great quantity of material to be removed. Files are then only used for the purpose of "fitting," and to smooth up those parts which are inaccessible to the planing tool. A planing machine is one of those expensive and heavy pieces of machinery frequently beyond the reach of mechanics, and it therefore becomes necessary to learn how to dispense with its valuable aid.

Cast iron usually forms the bulk of the material used by engineers, and this is the metal on which we will proceed, metaphorically, to operate. The hard outside skin on cast iron, and the sand adhering to its surface, make it somewhat formidable to attack. If a new file is used for the purpose, it will be assuredly spoiled, and to no purpose. One which has been very nearly worn out will be nearly as effective, and will not be much deteriorated by the use to which it is put. There are several ways of removing the "skin." One is to "pickle" the casting, that is, immerse it in a bath of sulphuric acid and water for a couple of days. This will dissolve the outer crust of the casting, and liberate the sand adhering to the surface. Another plan is to remove a layer of the casting from that part which has to be filed by means of a chipping chisel. This is a very good plan where much material has to be removed from some particular part of a large, unwieldy piece of machinery, though some practice will be required with the hammer and chisel before they can be used satisfactorily.

The art of filing a flat surface is not to be learned without considerable workshop practice. The file must be used with



long, slow and steady strokes, taken right from point to tang, moderate pressure being brought to bear during the forward stroke. The file must be relieved of all pressure during the return stroke, otherwise the teeth will be liable to be broken off, just in the same manner that the point of a turning tool would be broken if the lathe were turned the wrong way. It is not necessary to lift the file altogether off the work, but it should only have its bare weight pressing during the back stroke. One of the chief difficulties in filing flat is that the arms have a tendency to move in arcs from the joints, but this will be conquered by practice. Work which has been filed up properly will present a flat, even surface, with the file marks running in straight parallel lines. Each stroke of the file will have been made to obtain a like end, whereas work which has been turned out by a careless or inexperienced workman will often bear evidence that each stroke of the file was made without any regard to any others, and the surface will be made up of an unlimited number of facets, varying in size, shape and position. Those who have never received any practical instruction in the use of files generally have a bad habit of pressing heavily on the tool continuously, during both forward and backward stroke, and at the same time work far too quickly. These habits, combined, will almost invariably spoil whatever is operated on, producing surfaces more or less rounding, but never flat.

The position of the vice at which we are to operate is a most important point to be decided before commencing our filing proper. The vice should be fixed at the correct height, and so that the work held in the jaws will lie level. As to what is really the correct height, some slight difference of opinion exists. This is, probably, owing to the fact that the height of people varies. For filing general work the top of the vice jaws should be placed so as to be level with the

elbow of the workman, which will be found to range from 40in. to 44in. from the floor; therefore 42in. may be considered as an average height best suited for all heights of workmen, when the vice is to be permanently fixed. If the work to be filed is small and delicate, requiring simply a movement of the arms, or right hand and arm alone, the vice should be higher, not only in order that the workman may more closely scrutinise the work, but that he may be able to stand more erect. If the work to be filed is heavy and massive, requiring great muscular effort, its surface should be below the elbow-joint, as the operator stands further from his work, with his feet separated from 10in. to 30in., and his knees somewhat bent, thus lowering his stature; besides, in this class of work it is desirable to throw the weight of the body upon the file, to make it penetrate, and thus, with a comparative fixedness of the arms, depend largely upon the momentum of the body to drive the file. It will, therefore, be seen that in fixing the height of the vice, the nature of the work and the stature of the operator should be considered, if it is deemed necessary to apply the principle correctly. Having the vice fixed properly, the correct position to assume, when filing, is the next consideration. The left foot should be about 6in. to left and 6in. to "front" of the vice leg; the right foot being about 30in. to front, that is to say, 30in. away from the board in a straight line with the vice post. This position gives command over the work, or, rather, over the tool, and is at once characteristic of a good vice-man. The file must be grasped firmly in the right hand, by the handle.

When the object is to remove a mass of metal, the file requires to be as large as can be conveniently handled upon the work, and this for machinists' use need not, for the largest work, exceed a 20in. file, which, to make it bite well and drive a fair cut, will require all the power a man can exert continu-

ously. The cut of the file should be, for roughing wrought iron, a bastard cut; for steel, a second cut; and for brass, a rough file. To obtain the greatest amount of duty, the file, if a large one, requires applying on the forward stroke with all the power the operator can put on it; while, if a small one, with as much power as can be without danger of breaking the file. The end of the file handle should abut against the palm of the hand, so that the file is pushed, and not dragged. The work should be about as high as the operator's elbow, and for full duty with, say, a 14in. file, the left foot should be near the front of the vice, while the right one stands at least 26in. behind. The left hand must just hold the point of the file lightly, so as to guide it, and, when taking the forward cut, a fairly heavy pressure must be applied, proportionate to the size of the tool in use and the work being done.

On the forward stroke the front foot should be almost entirely relieved of the operator's weight, which will fall on the file, while on the back stroke the front foot should take most of the weight, so that the file may be relieved. The file strokes should not all be made parallel one to another, but first at one angle and then at another, so that the file marks will cross and recross each other, which enables the tool to cut easier. The speed of the file may be as quick as it can be pushed, providing the file is pressed to the work with all the weight possible, or if a small one, with all its strength will stand.

For filing to shape a smaller file must be used, so that even while removing the mass of the metal, the shape of the work can be readily observed by a slight lateral motion of the file, without entirely removing it from the work, or without stopping the file strokes. In filing to fit lies the greatest art of filing, for here it is necessary that the file be of true outline, and to be so applied that it touches the work at the required spot only.

It is as well here to make a few remarks on handles ; they should always be proportionate to the files to which they are fitted. The hole in the handle should be properly squared out, to fit the "tang," by means of a small "float," made from a small bar of steel, similar to those used by plane-makers and cabinet-makers. The handles should always have good, strong ferrules on them, and the files should be driven home quite straight and firm, so that there is no chance of the tool coming out. Each tool should have its handle permanently fixed ; it is very false economy to be continually changing, considering the low price of handles.

The operation of filing a casting just home from the foundry should be preceded by thoroughly brushing the casting with a hard brush, so as to remove all the loose sand. Then take an old file and file away steadily at the skin till you come to a surface of pure metal. Having by then removed those parts which spoil files, the old file, with which but slow progress is made, can be changed for a better one. The best as well as the most economical will be one which has been used for filing brass till it has become too much worn for that material. Such a file is in first-class condition for working on cast iron after its sandy skin has been removed, and when worn out on that it will serve first-rate for steel.

When it is necessary to file up a small surface—say zin. or zin. square—the file must be applied in continually changing directions, not always at right angles to chops of the vice. In that case, though the work might be made perfectly straight in that direction, yet there would not be any means of assuring a like result on the part lying parallel to the jaws. When the surface is fairly flat, the file should be applied diagonally both ways ; thus any hollow or high places, otherwise unobservable, will be at once seen, without the aid of straight edges. This



method of crossing the file cuts from corner to corner is recommended in all cases. The file should invariably travel right across the work, using the whole length of the file, not just an inch or so at some part, as is too often the case. When in use the file must be held quite firmly, yet not too rigid, so that the operator cannot feel the work as it progresses. The sense of touch is brought into use to a far greater extent than the inexperienced would imagine, and a firm grasp of the tool, at the same time preserving a light touch to feel the work, is an essential qualification for a good filer.

In filing out mouldings and grooves which have sections resembling, more or less, arcs of a circle, a special mode of handling the file becomes requisite. The files used are generally rats'-tails or half rounds. These are not used with the straightforward stroke so necessary in using the ordinary hand files, but a partial rotary motion—a sort of twist axially—is given to the file at each stroke. This screwlike motion, given alternately from right to left, and *vice versâ*, serves to cross the file cuts and regulates the truth of the hollow.

Files which have become clogged with minute particles of metal, dirt and grease are not fit to use, and the following directions will enable anyone to keep them in proper order. The most generally used tool for cleaning files is the scratch brush; but this is not very efficient in removing those little pieces of hard metal which get firmly embedded and play havoc with the work. File cards are also used; they are made by fixing a quantity of cards—such as a pack of playing cards—together by riveting, or by screwing to a piece of wood. These file cards are used in the same way as the scratch brushes—transversely across the file in the direction of its cuts—and though neither tool produces much effect yet both are often used.

When files have been clogged with oil and grease, the best

plan is to boil them for a few minutes in some strong soda water ; this will dissolve the grease and, as a rule, set most of the dirt and filings free. A little scrubbing with an old tooth brush will be beneficial before rinsing the files in boiling water and drying them before the fire. These methods will prove effective in removing ordinary accumulations of dirt, but those " pins " which are so much to be dreaded when finishing work can only be removed by being picked out with a scriber point, or, what is better, a piece of thin, very hard, sheet brass, by means of which they can be pushed out very easily. These " pins " may be to a certain extent avoided by using chalk on the file, if it is used dry, or a drop or two of oil will sometimes help matters.

With regard to finishing filed work, such as has to be made particularly presentable to the eye, there are many ways of polishing and burnishing, but, properly speaking, these are not filing. Nothing can exceed the beauty of well-finished work, perfectly square and smooth as left by the file, untouched by any polishing materials. In such work the filing must be got gradually smoother by using files of finer cut. When the work is deemed sufficiently finely finished for the purpose, the lines should be carefully equalised by " draw filing." For this the file is held in both hands, in a manner similar to a spoke-shave, and drawn over the work in the same way, producing a series of fine parallel lines, the beauty of which it would be difficult to exceed for the purpose of high-class engineering work.

## CHAPTER VII.

### *TOOL GRINDING.*

**M**ECCHANICAL operations are most successfully carried out with the most suitable tools. Edge-tools are employed in many mechanical operations ; keen edges, properly shaped, always give the best results, so that all those who employ edge-tools will find tool-grinding a subject deserving close study. A cutting edge is formed by the line of junction of the two facets of a wedge. The angle of these two facets one to the other is determined by considerations of strength or of shape. As a rule, the harder the material to be cut the more the approach of the two facets to a right angle, one with the other ; and so likewise the greater the strength required, the nearer the facets to a right angle. Thus, while the facets of a graver may stand at an angle of  $50^{\circ}$ , those of the cutters for a pair of shears or a punching machine will stand at an angle of about  $85^{\circ}$ , though both may be used to cut iron and steel. In this latter case, the strength being the main consideration, it must be obtained at a sacrifice of keenness, whereas, if we take the case of a razor or a lance, sharpness is the main consideration, and strength is disregarded. There are, however, certain considerations in the production of the cutting edge itself, regardless of the angles of the facet, which affect all cutting edges, and these considerations we propose to discuss. Grindstones of various sizes, forms and textures are employed for grinding and shaping edge-tools.

A flat circular disc of sandstone or sandstone grit has been

used for sharpening in generations past. The ancient warrior put an edge to his bronze spear-head by the means employed by the modern cutler to give the keen edge to a razor.

Probably no workshop tool pays better for the care bestowed upon it, or affects the work of an entire factory more than the grindstone. It is, however, almost an exceptional occurrence to find a good stone, properly hung, running true and in perfect order. The workshop stone generally has a trough beneath it to hold the water. Being left with a portion of its edge immersed, that part becomes softened, and the stone wears unevenly. The out-of-doors grindstone soon becomes a worthless wreck from the effects of the weather; the sun's rays warping the wooden frame, and making the stone itself too hard for use.

Although the applications of a grindstone are limited, still, in its sphere it acts to perfection. No machine or process has yet been devised to supersede the grindstone, and improvement has added but little to this primitive tool. Science has produced artificial compounds which take the place of the original natural stone; and they are often used advantageously. They are, however, new only in the method of manufacture. Emery compounds are now used very extensively for all purposes of grinding, and they have many advantages over the natural stones. Probably the employment of emery grinders will become universal at an early date. Even now they are fast displacing natural stones in Government workshops and other large factories where economy is studied.

Every employer of edge-tools should endeavour to get a grindstone that will do its allotted work well, and in the quickest time. A good grindstone, to replace one that is hard and flinty, is always a paying investment. A writer on the economic conduct of workshops recommends that a bad stone should be immediately broken up as the best means of saving time



and trouble, besides earning the thanks of those who would otherwise have to use it. Only those who have used a good stone, properly mounted, with its edge running perfectly true, can appreciate the true worth of a grindstone. Those who have used only lumpy, badly-kept stones cannot form a just estimate of the value of grindstones, as applied to the production of the edges of hardened steel tools. The requisites of a good grindstone are uniformity of texture, a keen bite, freedom from cracks and flaw, and sufficient cohesion to hold together and withstand the enormous centrifugal force to which it is often subjected. Newcastle stones are widely known and excellent. They vary in their texture, and coarse or fine grit may be chosen as desired. Artificial stones are made by binding together silicious particles with silicate of lime.

The grindstone for general purposes should be at least eighteen inches in diameter, though two feet is a better size. It is then large enough to form its own fly-wheel, the stone being mounted in a frame of its own. A treadle is far preferable to a hand-winch for turning the stone, as the latter generally necessitates the services of two persons to grind. Even the most simple tool, as a rule, requires the use of both hands to guide it on the stone. When an attempt is made to turn the winch by one hand, and hold the tool by the other, unsatisfactory results are obtained.

The speed at which grindstones are driven in some cases amounts to a surface velocity of three or four miles per minute, but to attain such a speed it is of course necessary to employ multiplying gear and steam power. For ordinary tool grinding sufficient speed is got by turning a two-foot stone as fast as convenient by a treadle, but when a hand crank is used the stone goes far too slow, and the remnants of a worn out grindstone only a foot or so in diameter, sometimes to be seen in use turned with a handle of that radius, are quite unfit for any use-

ful purpose. By putting a fly-wheel on the spindle and driving at a good speed, such a stone might be of some use, but the trouble it would involve is not worth the saving in a new stone.

Ransome's patent free-grit stones, made by the method previously mentioned, are asserted to have a tensile strength of about six hundred pounds per square inch, and the best results are attained with a surface velocity of from 2,000 to 4,000 feet per minute.

When tools are ground the operation should always be conducted on scientific principles, so as to produce the best results. The application of the tool to the work must also be correct. A properly shaped tool, improperly applied, will probably not be more effective than one applied on correct principles, having a badly formed edge. Well-ground tools, properly applied, are the essentials of economic workshop practice.

First comes the question: On which side of a stone a tool should be ground? This depends upon the shape of the tool, the amount of metal requiring to be ground off, and the condition of the grindstone. If the tool is held in such a position that the revolving surface of the stone runs towards the operator, the operation can be performed quicker, and as a rule, better; but it is in many cases quite dangerous, because the edge of the tool is liable to catch in any soft part or a spot in the stone, and to be dragged from the fingers, carrying them with violence down to the rest (every grindstone should be provided with a rest), and rendering them very liable to injury by being caught between the rest and the stone. In determining upon which side of the stone any given tool should be ground, the workman takes into consideration:—The shape of the tool, the amount of metal requiring to be ground off, and the condition of the grindstone.

In ordinary shop parlance, the side of the stone on which the face of the stone enters the trough is always called the side with the stone running to you, because all grinding which requires performing with the stone running to you is performed on that side, and in conjunction with the use of the rest. There is no excuse, and it is very dangerous, to grind on that side of the stone without using the rest as a steadying point and as a safeguard. With the rest, the grinding can be more delicately, truly and accurately, as well as expeditiously performed, because of the extra force with which the tool can be held steadily to the stone.

To true-up a grindstone, firmly fix a rest on the grindstone frame, and use, as a turning tool, a piece of wire about  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. thick ; or, if a large stone, a piece of small iron gas barrel, applied at a slight angle horizontally and pointing downwards. When using, roll the wire over towards the cut, and thus present continually a fresh sharp edge. Hang the water-trough on a joint, and let the water in it be clear of the stone ; when it requires wetting lift up the trough. A grindstone will turn best when slightly wetted.

For small tools the Bilstons, quarried in Staffordshire, have an excellent reputation, as they possess the requisite qualities of a fine even grain, without hard patches. Newcastle stones are more widely known, and are excellent ; they vary in their texture, and coarse or fine-grained may be chosen as desired. Sheffield stones have a hard coarse grit, and are used principally for rough grinding. Stones of coarse grain and large size are obtained from Yorkshire and Derbyshire, but through the want of cohesion and toughness especial care is necessary in selecting from these varieties, as they are liable to break up from centrifugal force, accidents of a most serious nature generally resulting from such mishaps.

Artificial grindstones (compounded as already stated) are

made in moulds, so that they are turned out perfectly true, circular and flat; there are no pebbles, hard spots, coal flaws, clay seams, or like defects incidental to natural stone. The process of manufacture is this: Silicate of soda, which is a kind of water glass, is first made by dissolving flints with caustic alkali. Silicious sand of fine and even grain is then mixed with the plastic mass, and the whole is moulded to the proper shape. In some cases the stone is treated chemically to render it hard; hydraulic pressure is employed to solidify the material. Some stones acquire their hardness by simple exposure to the atmosphere. According to the fineness of the grains of sand used the texture of the stone is modified, and emery may be used in its stead, resulting in a grindstone of exceptionally good quality; and these artificial stones are in many cases cheaper than the natural stone to quarry and shape, which necessitates the expenditure of considerable time, sometimes with a useless result.

Other kinds of artificial stones have been made in which the grit is held together by various hard-setting cements, but those resulting in a plaster-like surface are of little use, lacking as they do the sharp cutting properties of the natural stone. Emery and sand are mixed with various substances with a view to obtaining a useful whetstone; clay is used in a plastic state, and then baked with the cutting material incorporated in it; shellac and similar substances have the admixture made whilst they are liquefied by heat.

The following receipts for artificial grindstones are from an authentic source: Melt one part of shellac and add to it three times the quantity of washed silicious sand; emery may be used instead of sand. Boiled linseed oil is said to form an all sufficient agglutinant, and merely requires to be subjected to the influence of the air after the abrading material has been mixed with it. When the mass approaches solidity it is



subjected to pressure in moulds and finally hardened by heating. It would be impossible to give a list of the numberless formulæ which have been tried with varying success in the manufacture of emery wheels, which have now taken a very prominent place in tool grinding.

Glazing wheels are made of wood, covered with leather charged with emery, and are used by cutlers, especially for grinding and sharpening knives, tools, etc. They are also used for levelling and surfacing many metallic articles, for removing the scale from castings, and for trimming small castings such as builder's hardware. A wooden wheel without any leather covering is used by lapidaries in smoothing soft and rounded stones. These wheels are fed with flour-emery and water. Glass-cutters employ similar wheels, with pumice-stone and water, for smoothing, and with putty-powder and water for polishing. These wheels, commonly called glazers, are made of wooden discs built in quadrants, so arranged as to present the end of the grain on the edge. They are fed with emery, and mahogany is said to be a good wood to use. The modern emery wheel would be preferable in many respects.

Laps, made of soft metals, such as lead and copper, are very extensively used for grinding tools of peculiar form. The metal lap is turned to the desired shape, and is then charged with emery, or some other abradent, and oil; the particles become embedded in the surface of the soft metal, and make of it a "grindstone," which preserves the shape originally given to it, and requires to be continually supplied with fresh cutting material in its powdered form. Similarly, discs of wood are used, and to coat the edge of one with glue, and whilst that is yet soft to press emery into it by rolling the disc in some powder, is an expedient for quickly obtaining a substitute for a grindstone, and it answers its purpose for a time.

The natural grindstone is, however, the one which generally does duty in the mechanic's workshop, and to this one we wish to direct our attention especially. Small stones may be bought complete and ready for use, fitted in a cast-iron frame, forming at the same time its water trough. They are also used on a spindle, and driven between the lathe centres, but this is a practice to be most emphatically condemned.

The first cost of a grindstone is but a trifling consideration, when the long time that it will last and the amount of work that it will do are reckoned; and thus it is well to select as good a stone as can be got, as the extra cost, if any, will be amply repaid in the time saved in producing a like, and generally a better, effect with the superior stone. Grindstones mounted on frames, turned true on the edge and ready for use, are sold by most ironmongers at prices varying from about 25*s.* for a 24 in. stone; and the plain, unmounted, rough circular stone of that diameter costs from about 7*s.* 6*d.*, according to the thickness, the cost of conveyance from the quarries, and the rate of profit charged by the seller. Such a grindstone will answer all the requirements of engineers, carpenters and others, and will be found equal to most of the tool-grinding that is likely to be done in a small workshop.

We now proceed to the processes of grinding performed after tools have been sharpened on the grindstone. By means of hones of fine grit a keener edge may be produced.

Hones or oilstones are usually of some slaty stone. They are obtained from the varieties of metamorphic schists, which are sufficiently compact, and in which the particles of quartz are extremely minute and regularly disseminated, thereby giving them a fine and uniform texture. This texture, and also the hardness of the stone, differs considerably in the various kinds employed. A good stone is often thrown away as worthless when the trouble is that it is merely oil-soaked. If

this is the case, lay it in benzine to soak from one to three days, until the old oil is eaten out ; then on using it to polish again, with fresh oil, it will be found as good as new.

Instead of oil, which thickens and makes the stones dirty, a mixture of glycerine and alcohol is used by many. The proportions of the mixture vary according to the instrument operated upon. An article with a large surface—a razor, for instance, sharpens best with a limpid liquid, as three parts of glycerine to one of alcohol. For a graving tool, which is very small, employ glycerine almost pure, with but two or three drops of alcohol.

Turkey oilstones, which are obtained from the interior of Asia Minor, are in very general use for imparting a fine edge to every kind of edge tool used by workers in both wood and metal. This stone is of very fine grain. As a whetstone it surpasses every other known substance, and possesses, in an eminent degree, the property of abrading the hardest steel. It is, at the same time, of so compact and close a nature as to resist the pressure necessary for sharpening a graver or other small instrument of that description. Little more is known of its natural history than that it is found in the interior of Asia Minor, and brought down to Smyrna for sale. The white and black varieties of Turkey oilstone differ but little in their general characters. The black is somewhat harder, and is imported in larger pieces than the white. It is often cracked and flawed, and for this reason is generally cemented to a slab of slate, or sometimes embedded in wood. Sir Thomas Gresham paved the old Royal Exchange with Turkey stone. In the catalogue of a large Sheffield firm it is now priced at fifteen pence a pound.

Arkansas stone, imported from North America, is perhaps the finest variety of oilstone to be found in the market ; its high price—about five shillings a pound—being the chief bar

to its general introduction. It is a fine white stone, composed of upwards of 99·5 per cent. of silica, rather brittle, and having an excellent bite. Stones of this kind, and other expensive varieties, are used as thin slabs, mounted on a backing of inferior value. Also as small slips sometimes, about the size of a goose-quill.

Ouachita (or Washita) stone somewhat resembles the last-named, but is of a coarser grain. The price is about eighteenpence to two shillings a pound. It is quarried in blocks of from two to four feet square, often of irregular shape, which are then split and shaped into oblong slabs. This stone comes from the same quarries as the preceding variety.

A cheap and excellent stone for general purposes is called Nova Scotia oilstone, and nearly resembles the Washita or Ouachita stone already spoken of, the price being about one-third.

Norway ragstones are adapted for rapid grinding, they being the coarsest variety of hone slates. Scotland and Russia also furnish ragstones, which are merely highly silicious tough portions of mica schist, obtained from the metamorphic or crystallised schists.

Snakestone and water-of-Ayr stone are used principally with water, and are of a decidedly slaty nature. A hone now widely known as the Tam O' Shanter, and manufactured by Mr. Montgomerie, of Dalmore, Ayrshire, is obtainable at most tool dealers'. These stones have stood the test of years, and are highly approved by practical men. The Tam O' Shanter hone is made in several grades of grit. All the stones previously spoken of may be used dry or lubricated with oil or water.

Amongst other varieties of stone possessing useful qualities may be named Charnwood Forest stone, quarried in Leicester-



shire, and forming a strong, useful hone; Welsh slate, a tough, fine-grained slate of rather unequal texture; Hindostan stone appears to be not so well known in commercial circles, though it is an excellent stone, and sells at a moderate price; German razor hones, imported from the slate mountains in the neighbourhood of Ratisbon, on the left bank of the Rhine, sometimes cut in thin slabs, which are cemented to slate, though sometimes the combination is natural.

Used dry the hone soon becomes filled with particles of the abraded metal, and ceases to cut satisfactorily. Water will to an extent obviate this, and it has the advantage of cleanliness and costlessness. Oil gives a finer cut, and has almost universally superseded water in every trade. The edge produced is finer, and the liability to rust is removed.

The hone used for tool grinding, whatever may be its kind, should be of perfectly even texture. Hard and soft places will be a source of continual annoyance, and will tend much to mar the success of the operation. In any case, oilstones will wear irregularly, and it is necessary to occasionally re-grind them flat. Wide chisels, plane irons, and such tools cannot be ground on a rugged stone, and in every case a flat surface will produce the best results.

There are several ways of levelling a stone. It should first be wiped dry, and be as free from oil as possible. The grinding may be done with sand on a flat stone slab, or on a sheet of coarse emery paper laid on a flat board. It is sometimes convenient to grind the oilstone against the side of the ordinary shop grindstone. This, or any of the methods here given, will be found effective.

The keen edge which is to be produced by means of the oilstone can only be ensured on a tool which has been previously properly ground on a grindstone. The bevel produced by

that means has simply to be ground on the oilstone at its extreme end, so that a much smaller facet, at a slightly greater angle, is made on the bevel. There is considerable art in the manipulation of tools on the oilstone to produce the desired result. The wire edge left from the grindstone has to be reduced, by grinding, till it finally breaks off; then a few more strokes of the tool on the stone will make the edge perfect. The flat side of the tool, forming the edge opposed to the bevel, is generally gently applied to the oilstone to remove any trace of a wire edge on that side.

The process of sharpening a chisel on the oilstone will serve as a guide to the method pursued for many other tools. The stone, which has been wiped quite clean, and having a flat surface, is laid upon the bench with one end toward the operator, and a few drops of olive oil are placed upon it. The chisel, held by the handle with the right hand, and steadied with the fingers of the left grasping its blade, is placed on the stone, bevel downwards, somewhat slanting towards the breast. A few strokes, taken the entire length of the stone, will distribute the oil upon it evenly, and also enable the operator to notice the correct angle at which to hold the tool whilst sharpening. The motion given to the chisel must be parallel to the top of the stone, and this is somewhat difficult for an unpractised hand. The hands have a tendency to place the chisel more upright at the further end of the stroke, and to depress the handle as it is drawn nearer to the breast.

If a wide chisel is placed on the stone with its blade edge-ways towards the operator, and in that position worked back and to by the hands, as though sharpening, the faculty of moving parallel to the stone will be rapidly acquired. This done, a straight flat facet may be ground on any tool, no matter how thin its edge may be. It is frequently conducive

to producing a good edge if the tool be moved on the stone in small circles, the position and size of which are continually varied. The small bevel made on the oilstone should be equally as flat as the large one. A rounding facet is not only indicative of bad workmanship on the part of the sharpener, but also has a detrimental effect on the cutting powers of the tool.

In many of the smaller tools used in the mechanical arts it is highly advantageous to have duplicate cutting edges precisely alike in every respect. In some tools this is essential, and in a few it is necessary to re-grind them, so that the new cutting edge is precisely like the former one. Various forms of fancy drills and cutters used for ornamental purposes, also those used for producing the barleycorn engine-turned pattern on the backs of watch cases, may be cited as examples of these latter tools.

An apparatus is specially designed for this purpose. It is called a goniometer. The same name is applied to an instrument used for measuring the solid angles of crystals, etc., but the goniometer used in tool grinding consists of a receptacle in which the tool to be operated upon may be fixed. This receptacle is jointed to a frame in a manner that it may be swung over on either side, and also slanted backwards as much as required, the amount of each motion being duly registered on graduated arcs. The instrument rests upon two legs, and when in use the point of the tool fixed in it forms a third, so that each is always in contact with a flat surface, the tool resting on the face of a hone, the two legs on a surface level with it, but not abrasive. The entire goniometer is then moved in a circular direction, rubbing the surface, and by this means the point of the tool is ground perfectly flat. Whilst the legs are kept upon the surface it would be impossible to grind otherwise than flat. When an angular-pointed tool is

ground by the aid of this tool one angle is first operated upon, then the tool receptacle is swung over to a position exactly corresponding on the other side, and thus the second angle is made precisely similar to the first. Tools of similar construction are used for many analogous purposes. Watchmakers use them to hold various steel pieces whilst polishing, so that they may be perfectly flat. Inexperienced hands, or those who from some cause fail to produce a level facet on the end of a graver, frequently improvise a rough form of goniometer, using a block of wood split to the right angle required, to which the graver is fixed with a simple metal clip held with a wood screw. Such a makeshift contrivance may be made in a few minutes, and its use will for ever remedy the unworkman-like rounding faced tools now sometimes seen.

A plane iron may be judiciously set finally for accurate work by wedging it in such a position that it projects somewhat less than an eighth of an inch from the sole of the plane stock, and then carefully oilstoning the edge with the end of the stone resting on the wood. It is advisable to cover this latter with a sheet of paper, or to take some other precaution to prevent the oil and dirt usually found on an oilstone soiling the plane and subsequently the work.

There are special forms of grinders used for sharpening moulding tools, and others of peculiar, irregular, and special forms, which are not more conveniently ground from the top. Hollow beading tools used to shape a half-round moulding,—sometimes in a plane stock, at others in a handle used as a turning tool—are ground on a conical grinder, the diameter of which corresponds with the radius of the hollow, the amount of taper being sufficient to give the necessary clearance to the cutting edge. These grinders are usually made of metal—lead, iron, brass and others being employed. The cutting material is applied together with the oil, and adheres



to the grinder, into which it is subsequently embedded by the tool laid upon it.

Thus far a general insight into the method of grinding small edge tools has been given, and the subject is an important one to all who use edge tools. It has been truly said that a well-sharpened tool is not only typical of good workmen, but also goes a long way towards producing good work.

The ultimate result of tool-grinding is to produce a sharp cutting edge, and this will be fine according to the fineness of the stone on which the tool is ground. Rough grinding is suited to heavy edge tools, and light edge tools require finer abrasives. All grinding, however fine, leaves a serrated edge, which will correspond with the texture of the stone on which the grinding was done. As a coarse-toothed rip saw is unsuited to cut hard wood across the grain, so will a coarsely-ground edge tool be misapplied on fine work. To sharpen a meat-axe on a fine oilstone would be labour wasted, whilst to use a razor which has not the keenest edge possible would be labour in vain. The art of tool-grinding depends much for its success on the judicious selection of the grindstones or hones employed, so that the edge produced may be suited to the purpose to which it is to be applied.

No mechanical operation can appear to be more simple than that of grinding a tool to a cutting edge, and very few persons have any idea of the large amount of knowledge as well as skill that may be displayed in simply sharpening a tool. To give a tool a suitable cutting edge, one must understand the nature of the material to be cut, and must have had some experience in cutting it, so as to know what variation to make in the tool to suit the variations in texture, closeness of grain, hardness, etc. The axe, sword, chisel, knife, and needle, each require whetting to suit their special purpose.

In a succeeding chapter, information will be furnished on the various abrasive and finishing processes with which the worker in metal needs to be acquainted; and much that has been said in the present chapter in relation to the grinding of tools will be found of useful application in dealing with the material and appliances which are involved in those processes.

## CHAPTER VIII.

### *DRILLS AND DRILLING.*

**D**URING the last thirty years many attempts have been made to introduce a better system of drills and drilling, and on this subject very much might be written. Mr. Ford Smith, the Manchester engineer, read an interesting paper on the subject before the Institute of Mechanical Engineers. That paper contains numerous practical details of actual work, which, together with the remarks elicited in the discussion which followed, are mostly incorporated with this chapter.

Many engineers have used square bar-steel, which the blacksmith has twisted and then flattened at one end to form a drill. The object of the twisted stem was to screw the cuttings out of the hole ; and to some extent this succeeded, but not perfectly. The twisted square section revolving in the round hole had a tendency to crush or grind up the cuttings ; and if they were once reduced to powder, it was difficult (especially in drilling vertically) for the drill to lift the powdered metal out of the hole. In most cases, the lips of these drills were of such form that the cutting angle or face of each lip, which ought to have been about  $60^{\circ}$ , was  $90^{\circ}$ , or even still more obtuse ; this being an angle which would scrape only, and could hardly be expected to cut sweetly or rapidly.

Again, there were attempts to make the cutting angles of the two lips of much the same number of degrees as that given by the twist itself in a good twist drill. This was done by forging or filing a semicircular or curved groove on the

lower face of each lip. For a short time, lips thus formed cut fairly well, but a very small amount of re-grinding soon put them out of shape and made them of such obtuse cutting angles that good results could no longer be expected from them; and to be constantly sending such drills to the smith, and then to the fitter, to file into form again before they were re-hardened, was found to be too tedious and too expensive.

Again, to arrive at the best results in drilling, each of the cutting lips should make the same angle with a central line taken through the body of the drill; in other words, the angles should each have exactly the same number of degrees, say  $60^{\circ}$ . The clearance angles also should be identical, and the leading point should form the exact centre point of the drill.

From practice, it is found that if these proportions are not correct, the drill cannot pierce the metal it is drilling at more than about half the proper speed, and the hole produced will also be larger than the drill itself, as will be exemplified a little later on.

For some purposes, the flat drill—if properly made, with the same care and precision as were expended in making twist drills—may be superior. Hitherto, one of the great advantages of the twist drill had been that so much care and pains had been expended in making it; but using flat drills, and taking the same amount of care to ensure the sides being parallel and the angles cut even, and also pointing the edge truly, so as to do away with the blunt nose, the drill would work freely, and the shavings come off as from the twist drill. Such work can be done by a flat drill, which was machined all over and finished with great care, thus costing probably quite as much as a twist drill could be purchased for. All parts of the drill were made true and concentric; and it would therefore be practicable to grind the cutting lips by machine so accurately, and to flute the cutting angles of



the lips so accurately, as to produce excellent cutting results for the short space of time the two flutes would keep in order. But when the drill was worn, say half an inch shorter, the proper angles for cutting would be found no longer existing; and to restore them, a quarter of an inch of the length of the drill would have to be ground to waste, before two new flutes could be again ground into the lips, so as to restore the proper cutting angles. Or, worse still, where the flutes could not be ground in mechanically, the drill would have to be heated to soften it. Immediately this was resorted to, the finished accuracy of the drill was more or less destroyed; whereas in a good twist drill, used with care and re-ground mechanically, the cutting angles remained the same, however short the drill might be ground. This, coupled with the fact that the wear took place only at the end of the drill, and that the drill was hardened its whole length, produced the result that softening never had to be resorted to; the grinding or shortening of the drill was exceedingly slow; and there being no waste or expense in repairs, the cost of the twist drill, spread over its lifetime, was exceedingly small.

A flat drill, used in drilling through cast steel, about 11 in. deep, would bring shavings out, on either side of the drill, from 10 to 12 in. long, or even more; and a twist drill would not do much more than accomplish that. There was this difference between the plain drill and the twist drill, that in forming the latter, a great quantity of material was sacrificed in cutting out the groove, and it was a more expensive tool to get up. In the flat drill there was little waste of material, and it could be drawn down when it got too short; whereas, when a twist drill got too short, it became valueless. In going through bad castings, no doubt the twist drill would make a straighter hole.

Many trials have been made from time to time with  $\frac{1}{2}$  in.

drills of ordinary form manufactured by different engineers who had wished to see the effect of working a common flat drill against a twist drill. The result has been that if a feed were put on the common drill, approaching that used for the same size of twist drill, the former was invariably fractured, while the twist drill escaped fracture. The feed used was often so heavy that the spindle of the drilling machine could be observed visibly descending. Drilling machines originally provided with self-acting feeds, as coarse as could safely be applied for feeding forward the common drill, had been found to accomplish so much more work with the twist drill in a given time; all the feeds having been increased by about 90 per cent.

A common drill may "run," as it is usually termed, and so produce a hole which is anything but straight. This means that the point of the drill will run away from the denser parts of the metal it is cutting, and penetrate into the opposite side, which is soft or spongy. This is especially the case in castings, where, for instance, a boss may be quite sound on the one side, while on the other a mass of metal may be full of blow-holes, or so drawn away by contraction in cooling as to be very soft and porous. In such cases it is not possible to prevent a common drill from running into the soft side. This sort of imperfect hole is most trying to the fitter or erector, and if it has to be tapped to receive a screwed bolt or stud, is most destructive to steel taps. The taps are very liable to be broken, and an immense loss of time may also take place in attempting to tap the hole square with the planed face. A twist drill, from its construction, is bound to penetrate truly, and to produce holes which are as perfect as it is possible to make them.

The difficulty of boring with a large drill which had a thick point was by many engineers overcome by first drilling a small

leading hole, and afterwards opening it out to the required size by using a large drill, the point of which, entering into the small hole, had no cutting to perform. There were two objections to that plan; the first being that the point of the larger drill, not having any metal before it to support or steady it, was free to run eccentrically, oscillate transversely, and revolve with a series of jerks, thus producing a badly-finished hole, which, upon examination, would be found to be much jarred, and anything but round. The second objection was, that it was too tedious and expensive to drill a small leading hole first, as a considerable amount of time would be occupied in changing the speed of the drilling machine from the slow speed, which had last been used for the larger drill, to a speed quick enough for drilling advantageously the smaller or leading hole. The change of speed entailed the altering of the strap on the cones of the drilling machine, and in many cases the disengaging and again engaging of the double gearing of the machine. Both these objections were surmounted by using a twist drill. If preferred, its point might be thinned down, in a grinding machine with small emery-wheel, to any degree of thinness which might be found best for penetrating without fracturing; this was a simple mode of reducing the blunt end between the two grooves to any extent. By this system the point only needed to be thinned after about every sixth time the lips were re-ground; of course, each re-grinding of the lips gradually caused the point to become thicker, until it was found advisable to reduce it again by grinding. With this system very heavy feeds might be employed, and a twist drill 2 in. diameter had drilled one inch deep in wrought iron for every 62 revolutions; such a feed, however, may be considered too heavy for every-day practice, and a feed of 100 revolutions per inch for drills over  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. diameter may be preferred.

Flat drills should always be made thick at the shoulders of the drill and coming to a thin edge at the point. Drills used for the last twenty years had been made to that shape; and then there was very little of that forcing the point into the metal. A difficulty in twist drills was that there was in these drills no means of reducing the blunt point between the two grooves, which did not cut at all, but merely squeezed itself into the metal. There must be proportionately much more work concentrated on that little spot than on all the rest of the metal being drilled. It was of more importance in small drills than in large ones; because that blunt point in the smaller drills bore a much larger proportion to the whole area.

There was part of an ordinary flat drill, close to the point, which did not cut at all. If it was looked at from below, there was an oblique line forming the connection of the two ground edges of the drill. That line was not cutting; it merely ran round and rubbed; and that was the part which required all the force on the top of the drill to drive it into the metal. However much the cutting angle of the drill might be improved at the edges, that would not improve the connecting line; hence, in any material, if you had a small core-hole to start with, you could employ at once a feed four times as rapid as you could employ when drilling through a solid piece. However quickly the drill was rotated, it did not give too high a cutting speed at the point; it was too near the centre for that. It was not for the sake of the cutting edges, even if they were not particularly good, that you needed so low a rate of downward feed as one hundred cuts to the inch; but it was for the sake of preserving the point and giving it time to force itself into the metal, that you were obliged to employ fine feeds. The drills revolve with a circumferential speed of about 20 ft. per minute, and about 100 revolutions to the inch, of downward traverse—or 200 revolutions to the inch of downward traverse, and cutting



speed of 40ft. per minute, in cases where water could be used.

A new drilling machine, recently made, for dealing with the couplings of propellers, in which the bolt holes were to be drilled out of the solid, each at one operation, showed cuttings which came from a flat drill, 3in. diameter at the rate of  $\frac{1}{80}$  in. of feed per revolution, and they were equal to anything that would come from a twist-drill. No doubt one advantage of the twist-drill was the maintenance of shape and size; but the readiness with which the workman could deal with a flat drill would keep it always in the workshop.

Ordinary flat drills should have their cutting ends shaped so that the cutting edges form an angle of from  $90^{\circ}$  to  $120^{\circ}$ . The blade of the drill should be about one fifth of its diameter at that part where it is widest, and the point should be thinner down to about one-eighth. The thinner the point the easier will the drill enter. These proportions hold good for drills of about  $\frac{1}{2}$ in. diameter.

About a quarter of a century ago both the late Sir Joseph Whitworth and the late Mr. Greenwood, of Leeds, made some twist drills; but it is to be presumed that a large amount of success was not achieved with them, as for some reason the system was not persevered with. After that period the Manhattan Firearms Company, in America, produced some beautifully-finished twist drills. Though the workmanship in these was of a superior description, the drills would not endure hardship. It was found that the two lips were too keen in their cutting angles, and that they were too apt to drag themselves into the metal they were cutting, finally to dig in and to jam fast, and to twist themselves into fragments. Mr. Morse then took the matter up, and by diminishing by about 50 per cent. the keenness of the cutting lips of twist drills, made a great success of them. He used the grinding line, and an increasing

twist. In such a drill of the standard length, and before it is worn shorter by grinding, the twist is so rapid towards the lips that the angle they present, or what has been already referred to as the angle of the cutting surface, is very nearly the same as that which had been previously established for cutters' cutting metals.

If the angle of twist is made to increase towards the lips, it will decrease towards the shank. The shorter the drill is worn the more obtuse the cutting angle becomes, and the less freedom will it have, supposing, of course, that the angle, when the drill was new, was the most efficient. Suppose this decrease of twist were carried still further by lengthening the drill, a cutting angle of  $90^{\circ}$  would eventually be arrived at. The old common style of drill usually has a cutting edge which is so obtuse as not to cut the metal sweetly, but to have more of a tearing action, and thus put so much torsional strain on the drill that fracture is almost certain to take place, even if what would now be considered a moderate feed was put on by the drilling machine.

It is therefore obviously advantageous to adopt from the first the best cutting angle for all twist drills, and to preserve this same angle through the whole length of the twisted part, so that, however short the drill may be worn, it always presents the same angle, and that the most efficient which can be obtained. This cutting angle is easy to fix, and becomes an unalterable standard which will give the best attainable results.

The next important step in twist drills has been to fix a standard shape and angle of clearance for both lips, which should also give the best attainable result. This angle might be tampered with if the re-grinding were done by hand, and too much or too little clearance might easily be imparted to the drill from want of sufficient knowledge on the part of

the workman. If too little clearance, or in some cases none at all, is given to the drill, the cutting lips then cannot reach the metal; consequently they cannot cut. The self-acting feed of the drilling machine keeps crowding on the feed until either the machine or the drill, usually the latter, gives way. Again, if too much clearance is given, the keen edges of the lips dig into the metal and embed themselves there, and of course break off. The grinding line was introduced in the States to assist the operator in keeping both lips of the drill identically the same. To arrive at this, however, is more than can be accomplished by hand-grinding, as not less than three points have to be carefully watched, viz.: 1st. That both lips are exactly the same length. 2nd. That both have the same clearance angles. 3rd. That both make the same angle with the centre line on the body of the drill. If these are not attended to, the drill lips may, for instance, be both ground so as to converge exactly to the grinding lines at the point or centre of the drill, and may still be of such different lengths and angles as to produce very bad results in drilling.

To give an idea of the extreme accuracy which must be imparted to a twist drill, we must bear in mind that even a good feed is only  $\frac{1}{100}$  in. to each revolution; and as two lips are employed to remove this thickness of metal, each lip has only half that quantity to cut, or  $\frac{1}{200}$  in. This  $\frac{1}{200}$  in. is as much as can be taken in practice by each lip in drills of ordinary sizes.

It will, therefore, be readily understood that if one lip of a drill stands before the other to the extent of  $\frac{1}{100}$  in. only, the prominent lip, or portion of a lip, will have to remove the whole thickness of the metal from the hole at each turn. The lip of a drill will not stand such treatment; and it is, therefore, obvious that if this were attempted, the prominent lip would either break or become rapidly blunted. To get over these difficulties, the driller would no doubt reduce his feed by one-

half, or to  $\frac{1}{200}$  in. per turn, which would mean about half the number of holes drilled in a given time. This nice accuracy, although absolutely required, cannot be produced by hand-grinding; neither can a common drill, having a rough black stem more or less eccentric, be ground accurately, even by aid of a grinding machine with mechanism for holding it. To grind any drill accurately, it must be concentric and perfectly true throughout with the shank, as that part has to be held by the drill-grinding machine. If the drilling is to be done in the most rapid manner—in other words, at the smallest cost—and if the best class of work is also desired, it seems certain that a twist drill, with all the accuracy which can possibly be imparted to it in its manufacture, and the greatest care employed in the re-sharpening, is the only instrument that can be employed.

Much ingenuity has been expended on machines for the grinding of the two lips with mechanical accuracy. The one which has been the most successful in the United States has three motions, ingeniously combined with each other. So many motions, however, entail complication, and this, added to a system of holding the drill which was not sufficiently reliable, failed to produce the extreme accuracy it is requisite to impart to the two angles. The grinding line, too, is found to be more or less a source of weakness. It is, therefore, advisable to dispense with it, if possible; and where a good twist drill grinding machine is used, the grinding line is seldom or never looked at, and in that case is useless. If it is still desirable to have grinding lines (as in some cases where hand-grinding has to be relied upon), they should be made as faint as possible, and not cut deeply into the thin central part of the drill, so as to weaken it.

A simple and efficient twist drill grinding machine has been designed within the last four years. The twist drill in this machine has only one motion imparted to it to produce the



two lips of each drill as perfect facsimiles of each other, and with the desired amount of clearance. Many of these machines are now at work. That the drills ground by them are accurate is proved by the holes drilled being so nearly the size of the twist drill itself that in many cases the drill will not afterwards drop vertically through the drilled hole by its own gravity—in other words, the hole is no larger than the drill which has drilled it. This is the most severe test that can be made of the accuracy of re-grinding, and of the uniformity of all parts of the twist drill.

The whole of the drilling in many establishments is now done entirely by twist drills. Since their introduction it is found that the self-acting feed can be increased about 90 per cent.; and in some engineering works the feeds in some machines have been increased by fully 200 per cent., and, consequently, three holes are now being drilled in the same time that one was originally drilled with the old style of drill and with old machines. It may be interesting to give a few results out of numerous tests and experiments made with the twist drills. Many thousands of holes  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. in diameter and  $2\frac{3}{4}$  in. deep have been drilled, by improved  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. twist drills, at so high a rate of feed that the spindle of the drilling machine could be seen visibly descending and driving the drill before it. The time occupied from the starting of each hole, in a hammered scrap-iron bar, till the drill pierced through it, varied from 1 minute 20 seconds to  $1\frac{1}{2}$  minutes. The holes drilled were perfectly straight. The speed at which the drill was cutting was nearly 20 ft. per minute at its periphery, and the feed was 100 revolutions per inch of depth drilled. The drill was lubricated with soap and water, and went clean through the  $2\frac{3}{4}$  in. without being withdrawn; and after it had drilled each hole it felt quite cool to the hand, its temperature being about 75°. It is found that 120 to 130 such holes can

be drilled before it is advisable to re-sharpen the twist drill. This ought to be done immediately the drill exhibits the slightest sign of distress. If carefully examined, after this number of holes has been drilled, the prominent cutting parts of the lips which have removed the metal will be found very slightly blunted or rounded, to the extent of about  $\frac{1}{100}$  of an inch; and on this length being carefully ground by the machine off the end of the twist drill, the lips are brought up to perfectly sharp cutting edges again.

The same-sized holes,  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. diameter and  $2\frac{3}{4}$  in. deep, have been drilled through the same hammered scrap-iron at the extraordinary speed of  $2\frac{3}{4}$  in. deep in one minute and five seconds, the number of revolutions per inch being 75. An average number of 70 holes can be drilled in this case before the drill requires re-sharpening. The writer considers this test to be rather too severe, and prefers the former speed. The drills in each case were driven by a true-running drilling-machine spindle, having a round taper hole, which also was perfectly true; and the taper shank and body, or twisted part of the drills, also ran perfectly concentric when placed in the spindle, or in a reducer, or socket having a taper end to fit the spindle. When the drills run without any eccentricity, there is no pressure, and next to no friction, on the sides of the flutes, the whole of the pressure and work being taken on the ends of the drills. Consequently, they are not found to wear smaller in diameter at the lip end, and they retain their sizes, with careful usage, in a wonderful manner. The drills used were carefully sharpened in one of the twist drill grinders mentioned above. Upwards of 3,000 holes were drilled,  $\frac{5}{8}$  in. diameter, and  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. deep, through steel bars by one drill without re-grinding it. The cutting speed was in this instance too great for cutting steel, being about 18 ft. to 20 ft. per minute; and the result is extraordinary. Many thousands of holes

were drilled,  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. diameter, through cast iron  $\frac{7}{16}$  in. deep, with straight-shanked twist drill gripped by a chuck in the end of the spindle by a quick-speed drilling machine. The time occupied for each hole was from nine to ten seconds only. Again,  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. holes have been drilled through wrought copper,  $1\frac{3}{8}$  in. thick, at the speed of one hole in ten seconds. With special twist drills, made for piercing hard Bessemer steel rail, holes,  $\frac{1}{16}$  in. deep and  $\frac{2}{32}$  in. diameter, have been drilled at the rate of one hole in one minute and twenty seconds, in an ordinary drilling machine. Had the machine been stiffer and more powerful, better results could have been obtained. A similar twist drill,  $\frac{2}{32}$  in. in diameter, drilled a hard steel rail  $\frac{1}{16}$  in. deep in one minute, and another in one minute ten seconds. Another drill,  $\frac{5}{8}$  in. diameter, drilled  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. deep in 38 seconds, the cutting speed being 22 ft. per minute. This speed of cutting rather distressed the drill; a speed of 16 ft. per minute would be better. The steel rail was specially selected as being one of the hardest of the lot.

Small drills, such as are used by watchmakers, are generally made by filing the round steel wire slightly tapering, and then spreading the small end with a single blow from a tolerably heavy hammer. Using a light hammer, and effecting the spreading by a series of gentle taps, will effectually spoil the steel. There is no occasion to anneal the steel for hammering, providing it is moderately soft. For all drills up to one-eighth of an inch diameter, the steel should not be forged, as the bulk of the metal is too small to heat any predetermined temperature with any degree of certainty. Very small drills can be made from good sewing-needles, which are of convenient form to be readily converted into a drill. Firstly, the needle must be made sufficiently soft for working by heating till it assumes a deep blue colour. The extreme end may be made quite soft, and filed, slightly tapering to a trifle less than

the size of the hole to be drilled. The point is now spread out by a sharp blow of a hammer—not by a series of gentle taps, which would cause the metal to crack—and filed up to shape, the point being made more blunt than would be used for drilling ordinary metal. For drilling tempered steel, the cutting angles must also be much less than usual. The thickness of the drill across the flattened part should be about a third the diametrical measurement. Finish up the end on a strip of Arkansas stone, a file being too coarse for such small work. It is the great difficulty of getting such a very small piece of steel to an exact predetermined degree of temperature—hot enough to harden, but not so hot that it is burned—which makes the manufacture of these small tools uncertain; and this is abundantly proved by the fact that of half-a-dozen drills made from the same wire, thereby assuring uniformity of quality in the material, it often happens that some are exceedingly good and others of no use whatever, the difference being caused by the manipulation during hardening. This does not apply to drills or other steel things which are of sufficient size to show, by the colour of their surface, how hot they are; but it is the tiny pieces which by the contact with the flame are immediately rendered white hot that are difficult to manage. By heating the drill and plunging it into the body of a tallow candle, the hardening will be effected, but the steel will not be rendered so hard that it crumbles away under pressure in use. Thus, in one operation, the drill will be hardened and tempered. Instead of tallow, white wax, sealing wax, and such like materials, are adapted to the purpose. There is another method which finds favour with some: it is to envelop the thin point of the drill in a metal casing, and so get a bulk of metal which can be heated to a nicety, the drill inside being, of course, raised to the same temperature as the surrounding metal. The whole is then plunged into oil or water. Still,



there is the difficulty of tempering to overcome, though the danger of burning is avoided: burnt steel is of no use for tools. The best plan is to exercise the greatest possible care not to over-heat the drill, and harden and temper in one operation by plunging into tallow.

TABLE OF SPEEDS FOR TWIST DRILLS.

Diam. of Drills. Inch.	Revolutions per Minute			Diam. of Drills. Inch.	Revolutions per Minute.		
	For Steel.	For Iron.	For Brass.		For Steel.	For Iron.	For Brass.
$\frac{1}{16}$	940	1280	1560	$1\frac{1}{16}$	54	75	95
$\frac{3}{16}$	460	660	785	$1\frac{1}{8}$	52	70	90
$\frac{1}{8}$	310	420	540	$1\frac{3}{16}$	49	66	85
$\frac{5}{16}$	230	320	400	$1\frac{1}{2}$	46	62	80
$\frac{3}{8}$	190	260	320	$1\frac{5}{16}$	44	60	75
$\frac{7}{16}$	150	220	260	$1\frac{3}{8}$	42	58	72
$\frac{1}{2}$	130	185	230	$1\frac{7}{8}$	40	56	69
$\frac{9}{16}$	115	160	200	$1\frac{1}{2}$	39	54	66
$\frac{5}{8}$	100	140	180	$1\frac{9}{16}$	37	51	63
$\frac{3}{4}$	95	130	160	$1\frac{5}{8}$	36	49	60
$\frac{7}{8}$	85	115	145	$1\frac{11}{16}$	34	47	58
$\frac{15}{16}$	75	105	130	$1\frac{3}{4}$	38	45	56
1	70	100	120	$1\frac{13}{16}$	32	43	54
	65	90	115	$1\frac{7}{8}$	31	41	52
	62	83	110	$1\frac{15}{16}$	30	40	51
	58	80	100	2	29	39	49

Experience in the use of both twist and flat drills in boring holes of various sizes in different kinds of metals has proved the most advantageous velocities that their surfaces can be run—considering the durability of the drills, the amount of work they can do in a given time, and the cost of labour expended in running them while boring holes in metals—to be as follows:—On steel, 15 ft. per minute, when in the condition usually worked; wrought, malleable and cast iron, 20 ft. per minute, when in their usual working conditions; brass and kindred metals, 25 ft. per minute. The preceding table shows the diameters of twist drills, as usually made

and sold in the markets, from  $\frac{1}{16}$  of an inch upwards; also the number of turns per minute each size has to be run to have its periphery run on the scale of velocities per minute mentioned above, when boring holes in steel, iron and brass.

The Morse Twist Drill and Machine Company publish the foregoing table, showing the number of revolutions per minute for drills from  $\frac{1}{16}$  in. to 2 in. diameter, applied to steel, iron and brass respectively, in the usual way. To drill 1 in. deep in soft cast iron will usually require : For  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. drill, 125 revolutions; for  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. drill, 120 revolutions; for  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. drill, 100 revolutions; for 1 in. drill, 95 revolutions.

## CHAPTER IX.

### *ABRASIVE AND FINISHING PROCESSES.*

**A**BRASIVE processes range from coarse grinding for the purpose of shaping the metal to fine polishing, which produces finish on the surface. Grinding, as practised in the production of edged tools, forms the subject of a previous chapter, which may be read with the present one.

The whole process of polishing consists merely of substituting finer scratches for those which are coarse, and so continuing till the desired finish is attained; but even then the surface, if examined with a magnifying glass, will appear full of scratches. It is evident that great care must be taken to have the polishing materials uniformly fine, for even one or two grains of a coarser grit will produce ugly scratches instead of a perfectly uniform surface.

Glaze wheels covered with leather and dressed with Tripoli powder, rotten-stone, oxide of tin or putty powder, crocus and rouge, or some other polishing material, are used to produce highly-polished surfaces.

Emery-wheels are now manufactured in large quantities and retailed by shopkeepers throughout the kingdom. Grains of emery are consolidated into wheels of all sizes and forms, and a simple simile of their use is that the emery-wheel is to the file what the circular-saw is to the hand-saw. It is a rotary file whose cutting-points never grow dull. Emery-wheels used as files will, in one minute, do work equivalent to that produced by file-strokes a mile long. In other words the emery-wheel will do in one minute work that would employ a filer over one

hour. Emery-cloth is also largely used for grinding purposes, and, stretched over a flat surface, it will finish a surface better than a file.

The Grecian and Turkish emery is shipped in blocks of various size, from 150lbs. in weight down to pieces the size of an egg. In its preparation, the blocks are broken up under hammers, until of a proper size to be placed in rock-crushers, which reduce the emery to fragments as small as walnuts. These are placed under stampers, rollers, and crushing machines until the whole is reduced to the required fineness. It is then conveyed to the sifting machines to separate the various grades of grain. The meshes of wire (or lawn for the finer) used for obtaining the various grades vary from sixty to many thousand holes to the square inch. The grades have sizes and numbers corresponding respectively to the number of meshes in a lineal inch of bolting cloth. The very fine emery is suspended in water, and then assorted by precipitation. The finest floats in the atmosphere of the stamping room, and is deposited on the beams and shelves, from which it is occasionally collected.

Fragments of oilstone, when pulverised, sifted and washed, are much in request by mechanics. This abrasive is generally preferred for grinding together those fittings of mathematical instruments and machinery which are made wholly or in part of brass or gun-metal; for oilstone, being softer and more pulverulent than emery, is less liable to become embedded in the metal than the latter, which is then apt continually to grind and ultimately damage the accuracy of the fittings of brass works. In modern practice it is usual, however, as far as possible, to discard the grinding together of surfaces, with the view of producing accuracy of form or precision of contact. Oilstone powder is preferred to pumice stone powder for polishing superior brass work,



and it is also used by the watchmakers on rubbers of pewter in polishing steel.

Pumice stone is a volcanic product, and is obtained principally from one of the Lipari islands, which is composed entirely of this substance. It is extensively employed in various branches of the arts, and particularly in the state of powder, for polishing the various articles of cut glass; it is also extensively used in dressing leather, and in grinding and polishing the surface of metallic plates, etc. Pumice stone is ground or crushed under a runner, and sifted, and in this state it is used for brass and other metal works; and also for japanned, varnished, and painted goods, for which latter purposes it is generally applied on woollen cloths with water.

Nothing is more necessary to the successful use of polishing powder than equality in the grain. Fine dust clogs the action of coarse grinding powders, and prevents them from rapidly cutting the object to be ground; coarse particles mixed with fine polishing powder scratch the article and render the repetition of grinding and polishing necessary. To secure fineness and uniformity, no process equals that of elutriation, which is thus performed:—Suppose it were desired to separate the ordinary flour emery into three different degrees of fineness. Take three vessels, such as pails or jars, and mix the emery with a large quantity of water—say, one quart of water to  $1\frac{1}{2}$  oz. of emery. Stir the mixture until the emery is thoroughly diffused through the liquid, and allow it to stand five minutes. By this time all the heavier particles will have settled, and on pouring the fluid into a second jar only the finer portion will be carried over. So continue to wash the first residuum until nearly all the particles have subsided at the end of five minutes, and the water is left comparatively clear. You will now have the coarse portion (No. 1) by itself. So from the sediment collection from washings of No. 1 you

may collect a portion (No. 2) having a second degree of coarseness. The last and finest will be obtained by letting the final washings stand ten or fifteen minutes, pouring off the liquid, and allowing it to settle.

Slips of wood called buff sticks, covered with buff leather, are used in numerous polishing processes, some abrasive material being spread on them suited to the work in hand.

The principal polishing powders are chalk or whiting, crocus or rouge, emery, oilstone powder, and putty, which latter consists chiefly of oxide of tin. Other powders, such as Tripoli, bathbrick, sand, etc., are rarely used for the finer kinds of work. Commercial whiting contains particles of silica of varying size, which cut freely, but are apt to scratch. Pure whiting, which is easily got by careful elutriation, has very poor cutting qualities, and is therefore used chiefly as plate powder for cleaning gold, silver, glass, etc., and for absorbing grease from metals which have been polished by other means.

Chalk is usually prepared specially for polishing. The chalk is thoroughly pulverised and mixed with clear rain-water in the proportion of two pounds to the gallon. Stir well and let it stand about two minutes. In this time the gritty matter will have settled to the bottom. Pour the water into another vessel, slowly, so as not to stir up the settlings. Let stand until entirely settled, and then pour off as before. The settlings in the second vessel will be your prepared chalk, ready for use as soon as dried. Spanish whiting treated in the same way makes a very good cleaning or polishing powder. Some add a little jeweller's rouge, which gives the powder a colour, and adds to its value in the eyes of the uninitiated. In cases where a sharper polishing powder is required, it may be prepared in the same way from rotten-stone. Chalk is frequently manufactured specially by adding a solution of carbonate of soda to a solution of chloride of calcium (both

cheap salts) so long as a precipitate is thrown down. The solutions should be carefully filtered through paper before being mixed, and dust should be rigorously excluded. The white powder which falls down is carbonate of lime, or chalk, and when carefully washed and dried it forms a most excellent polishing powder for the softer metals. The particles are almost impalpable, but seem to be crystalline, for they polish quickly and smoothly, though they seem to wear away the material so little that its form or sharpness is not injured to any perceptible degree.

Crocus or rouge is manufactured in the following manner :—crystals of sulphate of iron (green vitriol or copperas) are taken immediately from the crystallising vessels in the copperas works so as to have them as clean as possible, and instantly put into crucibles or cast-iron pots, and exposed to heat, without suffering the smallest particle of dust to get in, which would scratch the article to be polished. Those portions which are least calcined, and are of a scarlet colour, are fit to make rouge for polishing gold or silver, while those which are calcined or have become red-purple or bluish-purple, form crocus fit for polishing brass or steel. Of these, the bluish-purple coloured parts are the hardest, and are found nearest to the bottom of the vessels, and consequently have been exposed to the greatest degree of heat.

Putty powder is the pulverised oxide of tin or generally of tin and lead mixed in various proportions. As a criterion of quality, it may be said that the whitest putty powder is the purest, provided it be heavy. Some of the common kinds are brown and yellow, while others, from the intentional admixture of a little ivory black, are known as grey putty. The pure white putty powder—which is used by the marble workers, opticians, and some others—is the smoothest and most cutting. It should consist of the oxide of tin alone; but to lessen the

difficulty of manufacture, a very little lead (the linings of tea chests), or else an alloy called shruff (prepared in ingots by the pewterers) is added to assist the oxidation. The putty powder of commerce, of good fair quality, is made of about equal parts of tin and lead, or tin and shruff; the common dark-coloured kinds are prepared of lead only, but these are much harsher to the touch, altogether inferior. Perhaps the most extensive use of putty powder is in glass and marble works, but the best kind serves admirably as plate powder, and for the general purposes of polishing. A little crocus is usually added to the putty powder by way of colouring matter, and it is then easier to learn the quantity of powder that remains on the polishing tool; this is the polishing powder employed in making achromatic object-glasses for astronomical telescopes.

The methods of finishing brass have been already mentioned. To obtain the finest degree of lustre on cutlery, the best cast-bar steel having a fine grain should be selected. After this has been forged, filed or otherwise shaped, to the required form—forging always improves steel if care is taken not to burn it—it passes through the following processes in the order indicated: Grinding, glazing, fine glazing, lapping, buffing, and, in some cases, burnishing. If possible, it should be hardened and tempered at least to a dark brown temper, as hardened steel takes better polish than soft steel. The black steel is ground first on a grindstone, running at a great velocity from the operator, as do all the wheels in the subsequent processes. The size of the stone depends on the class of work: for large surfaces, or quick, cheap grinding, the stone being often 10 ft. diameter and 1 ft. broad on the face; whilst for knives, razors, and scissors requiring to be hollow, it rarely exceeds 1 ft. and often only 6 in. diameter. Having uniformly ground off the scale and all protuberances, it is transferred to the glazing wheel, consisting of a wooden wheel, varying in size like



the grindstone, according to the character of the work, but rarely exceeding 2 ft. in diameter, generally only 12 or 15 in., and for small work 6 or 8 in. Round the periphery of this wheel is glued and fixed, with wooden pegs, a strip of thick leather, which is put on wet and allowed to dry; on this a layer of glue is put, and it is then rolled in No. 1 emery. The work is cautiously applied to this glazer, as it is called, which is revolved with great rapidity, care being taken not to allow the work to become so hot as to lose its temper. From this it is removed to the fine glazer, which is a coarse glazer which has worn smooth. By this time the work will have a very good appearance, and, for many purposes, it is fit for the market; but it is yet full of scratches.

The next wheel is called the lap wheel, which consists of a wooden wheel, round the outer rim of which is cast a ring of lead about  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. thick. This is turned up perfectly true, and then rolled with pressure in flour emery. This lap converts the large scratches into very fine ones, and as the lead is a good conductor of heat, less care is required to keep the article cool. At this stage, in most cases, comes the final buffing; but, for the very best work, it is first polished on a leather-edged wheel covered with a paste of flour, emery and tallow. The grease must most carefully be cleaned off to ensure success in the final process. The wheel in this process is covered round the rim with thick buckskin, and turned up true with a sharp turning tool. For small work this is not necessary, provided the wooden part is turned true in its place, and thin leather is used. In putting on the leather, the two ends must be pared to a chamfer, so as not to cause a lump, and the direction of rotation is such as not to cause the work to open the joining. This wheel is charged with dry rouge powder. If the preceding operations have been properly performed, the work will readily assume an exquisite

polish. If the work requires to be accurately flat on any part the wheels are replaced by discs, the surfaces of which take the place of the rims in the above wheels ; an experienced man, however, will do flat work of considerable size on the wheels without deteriorating much the truth of the surface. The process seems to be a long one, as knives and scissors are got up so cheap ; but it is surprising with what rapidity the successive operations are gone through ; and it must be remembered that some articles are often ground and glazed, a dozen at a time, by one man.

A process of finishing brass, called bright grey, is effected by means of rotten-stone mixed with oil, and applied with a boxwood slip. The surface of the work is first prepared by greying with water-of-Ayr stone.

The following is the process used by the mason to polish marble. With a piece of very fine grit sandstone rub the slab backward and forward, using very fine sand and water, till the marble appears equally rough and not scratched ; next use a finer stone and finer sand, till its surface appears equally gone over ; then with fine emery powder and a piece of felt or old hat wrapped round a weight, rub till all the marks left by the former process are worked out, and it appears with a comparative gloss on its surface. Afterwards, finish the polish with putty powder and fine, clean rags. As soon as the surface appears to have a good gloss, do not put more powder on the rags, but rub well, and in a short time the marble will appear as fresh as when new.

Japanning on metal is simply the process of laying a coat of varnish and afterwards drying by artificial heat. This second operation, the baking, is the essential part in japanning. The art was originated in Japan, whence we have derived the name. Many examples of japanning on *papier maché* may be seen at fancy repositories where various ornamental nicknacks

imported from Japan are on sale. In making this ware, the Japanese employ a lacquer which exudes from an indigenous tree. Successive coats are laid on, each one being thoroughly dried in the sun before the application of another. Thus a thick hard coating is made, which may be smoothed and polished by abrasive materials, though the natural lustre suffices for general requirements. Gilding and other ornamentation is then made to adhere by means of boiled oil. The whole is finally finished by a coat of clear varnish. The above is a rough sketch of the art as practised by the originators, but we have to deal with modern japanning, and confine our observations to its application to metal.

The janner's oven is a receptacle in which the work is placed when being heated. Usually the heat is applied by means of external flues, in which hot air or steam is circulated. By this system the temperature may be regulated to great nicety, the supply of heat being controlled by dampers or stop-cocks. A sheet-iron box, encased by another of the same shape, but somewhat larger in size, so that an interspace of an inch or two exists between them, is the most simple form of oven. Heat is applied to the interspace, and thus an even temperature is maintained. A flue must be provided, to carry off the vapours which arise from the japan.

A doorway, by which to introduce the articles, provided with a tolerably well-fitting door, is, of course, essential. Hooks or wire shelves are provided, by which the work is supported, so that the heat may take effect equally all round. Moisture, dust, and all other extraneous matter must be carefully excluded, so that the japanning may be kept perfectly clean and free from foreign substances. Thermometers are hung in the oven to indicate the precise degree of heat, which must be regulated to suit the requirements of particular work.

Metals require no special preparation before laying on the

japan. After being wrought to the desired shape, and smoothed as much as may be considered advisable, the article has only to be made thoroughly clean to prepare it for japanning. The surface must be quite dry, or the japan will not adhere properly. Wood requires to be primed and otherwise prepared for japanning.

Japan—that is, the paint-like material to be laid on the metal—is made of shellac varnish, with which should be incorporated the pigment necessary to produce a desired colour. Shellac varnish is made by dissolving shellac in alcohol. A better varnish for japanning is made by adding resin and shellac, 2 oz. of each, to a pint of methylated spirit. Any pigment may be added to such varnish to form japan of the colour required. A few formulæ may be useful. *Black*: Mix lamp-black or ivory-black—this latter preferably—with the above varnish. *Another Black*: Melt 1 lb. of asphaltum, and mix with the same quantity of balsam of capivi, thin the mixture to a workable consistency with hot oil of turpentine. *Another Black*: Mix lamp-black with oil of turpentine, and grind smooth on a muller; thin the mixture with copal varnish.

*White*: Flake white, or white lead, ground up with a sixth of its weight of starch; this must be thoroughly dried and mixed with mastic varnish. *Yellow*: King's yellow is used as the pigment, but the effect is considerably improved by dissolving turmeric in the alcohol before adding the shellac to form the varnish.

Tortoiseshell japan is pretty, and comparatively easy to manipulate. The work is first coated with a japan made by boiling two pints of linseed oil, to which  $\frac{1}{4}$  lb. of umber has been added, till it becomes thickened; the mixture is then strained and further boiled till it becomes of a pitchy consistency. This is mixed with turpentine to a workable consistency, and then applied. On a thoroughly dry coating



of this japan lay a quantity of vermilion spots to represent the clear portions of the shell. The vermilion japan is made by adding vermilion to shellac varnish ; it should be laid on thinly and dried. The whole surface is then finally coated with a thin layer of the above-described brown japan, still further diluted with turpentine. A long course of stoving will be necessary to thoroughly harden the japanning.

The operation of japanning consists of driving off the solvents of the japan at a high temperature. When the article, covered with a coating of japan, is placed in the oven and submitted to a temperature of about 200° to 300° Fahrenheit, or even more, the solvents quickly evaporate. The residue, a gummy substance, with which is incorporated the colouring matter, is kept liquid by the heat, and in the semi-liquid state forms a smooth coating, filling any small inequalities of the surface. The baking process secures a very firm adhesion of the japan to the metal, far superior to that of ordinary varnish or paint. The japan is also made hard, and consequently better able to resist wear. When one coat is dried, another is applied and submitted to the action of heat. These operations are repeated, as may be deemed necessary, from one to six times. Each succeeding coat of japan will present a more uniform and glassy surface. The natural flow of the japan generally suffices to produce a good smooth surface, but in some cases a process of polishing is resorted to before the application of the final coat.

The temperature for light-coloured japans must not be sufficiently high to scorch, or the surface will, of course, be discoloured. Dark japans are usually dried at a very high temperature, if the article is not likely to be injured by heat. The final coating of japan is generally a layer of clear varnish which will add to the lustre of the surface.

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